The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 30, 1890.

The Week.

THE difference of opinion among the Republican chiefs concerning the comparative merits of cheapness and dearness still continues. Mr. Cabot Lodge denounced cheapness again on October 22 at Medford (Mass.), and repeated that it made "cheap men and women," and "this was not a cheap country"; but he also credited the McKinley Bill with having made "reductions in articles of general consumption," and had the audacity to say that "the duty on hides from which boots and shoes are made had been reduced," the fact being that there has been no duty on hides for many years. It may be well to pass lightly over the Scholar's unscrupulousness of statement of which this is an example, but why does not some one in his audiences ask him to explain his contradictions and incoherences? Why does it make cheap men and women to wear cheap clothing, and not make them cheap to eat cheap food? Why does he boast of the cheapness of "articles of general consumption" and boast of the dearness of woollen coats and trousers? Is it possible that wearing a cheap coat for a year cheapens a man as much as eating cheap bread and potatoes and sugar? The Democrats in Massachusetts make a great mistake in not getting some competent man to follow the Scholar around the State, and "heckle" him, as the Scotch say—that is, get up when his speech is ended and "corner" or expose him by questions. He might in this way be reduced to a very gelatinous moral and mental condition after every one of his discourses until he became more cautious. He inserted, also, in his Medford speech a piece of cheap demagogy, which revealed fully his own cheapness of character, in the shape of a fling at the people who "drink French champagne, and smoke imported cigars, and wear English clothes" (he is one of them himself), and suggested that the gentlemen "who talk about the increase of prices" oppose the bill simply because it increases the cost of their own luxuries. "If a man," said he, "isn't able to look over his own selfish interests, he isn't going to sympathize with the masses." What an unselfish, single-minded Scholar he is himself! And how fond of "the masses"!

On the other hand, Speaker Reed, in his speech at Bloomington (Ind.) the day before, denounced the shopkeepers for "raising prices," or pretending to raise them, and said:

"Don't be scared. The shopkeepers can't take your money from you. An effort is being made to make you buy to-day instead of to-morrow. You will notice that prices have not gone up, but are always going to go up. They ask you to come in out of a wet that will never happen. [Cheers.] The people are showing a good Yankee spirit—or rather, I should say, United States spirit, for I feel that the people in the West are as sharp as the Yankees are—by using the entire Democratic press for advertising purposes."

Now, why should his audience be "scared" if dearness is a good thing? According to Lodge and McKinley, the shopkeepers in raising prices are *doing the best thing* possible for the character of the American people, and the Democrats in putting them up to it deserve well of their country. But it plainly appears here that Reed does not believe in dearness as a moral agent, and assures people that things will not be any dearer than they are now in consequence of his wise and judicious legislation of last winter. But here again comes another puzzle. If the McKinley Bill does not raise prices, what is the use of it? How does a bill protect if it does not push prices up? How will the manufacturer pay higher wages if he does not make the consumer pay more for his goods? Then, again, Dingley of Maine, in a recent speech of his, asserted that the McKinley Bill put more articles on the free list—that is, made a closer approximation to free trade—than the Mills Bill, and was loudly applauded by his audience; showing that he too believes in cheapness. In fact, to follow the speeches of these worthies makes one's brain reel, and makes one long to knock all their heads together, and then see if some coherent and concordant statement about the matter could be extracted from them.

Mr. Lodge is one of the discoverers of the new and remarkably *fresh* idea that New England ought to sink her own preferences regarding the duties on iron ore, pig-iron, and coal, "for the good of the whole," which means for the good of the iron-masters of Pennsylvania. You can't make a tariff for one particular section, he says; you must take in the whole country. But when he wrote his 'Life of Daniel Webster,' two or three years ago, he said that you could and ought to vote for your own section every time, and let other people look out for their own sections. He was writing about Webster's course on the "tariff of abominations," the tariff of 1828, which was not nearly so abominable as the McKinley tariff, and this is what he said:

"It is true that his course was a sectional one, but everybody else's on this question was the same, and it could not be, it never has been, *and never will be otherwise.*" (Lodge's 'Webster,' p. 171.)

This shows how unsafe it is to indulge the spirit of prophecy. In this respect Mr. Lodge has been more unfortunate than his compeers. Historians have often fallen into error when predicting what other people would do. Mr. Lodge has blundered in predicting what he himself would do.

It is hard to keep pace with the McKinley prices. In fact, it is only now and then that we catch one of them, as it were, on the wing. A merchant sends us the circular of the American Linoleum Manufacturing Company, announcing new prices "owing to the increased cost of raw material." The old and new prices are these:

	Old price.	McKinley price.
A quality per square yard.....	$0.80	$0.85
B quality per square yard.....	.70	.75
C quality per square yard.....	.55	.62½

The old duty on linoleum was 40 per cent. The new duty is 15 cents per square yard, and 30 per cent.; *i. e.*, the advance in the cheaper grades is *intended* to be greater than in the dearer, and *is so.* Without doubt this is a part of McKinley's benevolence to the poor. It should be added that linseed oil is one of the raw materials of linoleum, perhaps the most important of all the materials, and that this was McKinleyed up seven cents per gallon after it had been "Trusted" up a great deal higher.

It would have been an outrage on religion if McKinley had overlooked the clergy in his distribution of the benefits arising from higher prices of goods. That the clergy are not exposed to the degrading consequences of cheapness is made plain by a letter which has been sent to us by a clergyman, and which was addressed to him by E. O. Thompson, Clerical Outfitter and Vestment Maker, Ecclesiastical Warerooms, 908 Walnut Street, Philadelphia. The letter was written in reply to an inquiry respecting certain goods in Mr. Thompson's line, and it begins with these words:

"The cost of cloths and clothing *has been raised at least 25 per cent. by the passage of the McKinley Tariff Bill.*"

To speak more particularly, the duty on those cloths, which was formerly 45 cents per pound and 40 per cent. ad valorem, is now 49½ cents per pound and 60 per cent. ad valorem. In order to do full justice to religion and make a neat job of it, McKinley raised the duties on church organs and on chimes of bells from 25 per cent. to 45 per cent. All this on the theory that cheap vestments make a cheap minister, and cheap organs a cheap church, etc., etc.

When the Mills Bill was under discussion two years or more ago, Congressman Fitch of this city, in the course of his speech on that measure, read a letter from a physician attached to one of our asylums complaining of the absurd and barbarous duty (45 per cent.) on microscopes. This gentleman was engaged in the study of diseases and disease germs, the microscope being a necessary tool for that work. He had sent to Jena, Germany, for an instrument costing $94 at the manufactory. On this he was required to pay duties to the amount of $42.30. Later he had occasion to order an "oil immersion lens," or microscopic objective, costing $80 at the factory, and on this he had to pay $36 to the Custom-house. This was the price charged by an enlightened Government to a man who was giving his services to an asylum gratis, and contributing as much as possible to the alleviation of pain and suffering among all his fellow-citizens by his investigations of the causes of disease.

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The letter made some stir at the time, but was speedily forgotten. Now, what does the precious McKinley Bill do for microscopes? A letter from Jas. W. Queen & Co., dealers in "instruments of precision," No. 924 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia, to a professor of a college in this State, tells the story:

DEAR SIR: Replying to your favor of the 13th inst., which came to hand during the absence of the writer, of a few days, we are glad to quote you a net price on the one-twelfth oil immersion [microscopic objective] that you mention, of $42. *The cost is considerably higher under the new tariff.* [This costs in Germany $25.] We think that we could let you have one of these instruments within two months. We shall be much pleased if we can give you any further information that you may desire, and hope to be favored with your order. Very truly yours,

JAS. W. QUEEN & CO.

Referring to the McKinley tariff, we find, after a good deal of searching, that the new duty on microscopes is 60 per cent., and that, like many other contemptible swindles in the bill, it is hidden under the "similitude clause." Microscopes are not mentioned in the bill at all, but they are included in a paragraph which says that non-enumerated articles shall pay the same rate of duty as the enumerated articles that they most resemble—*i. e.*, the same duty as spectacle and eye-glass lenses, which have been advanced from 45 per cent. to 60 per cent. McKinley would probably say that this was done for the benefit of people having weak eyes, in order that they might share in the advantage of high prices, as set out in his Kalamazoo speech.

Silver seems to be going down by the run. The editor of the *Silver Dollar* ought to come to New York again and look into this. In the last issue of his paper he said he had visited this city, and had discovered a conspiracy among bankers and trust companies to depress silver. He proposed as a remedy and counter-irritant that the bankers and brokers of the West and South should "withdraw their accounts from every institution in New York that has thus conspired against silver, and place their money and their business with banks and brokers friendly to silver." As he did not give the names of the conspirators, he left the bankers and brokers of the West and South in a state of mental paralysis and indecision. More singular still, he said that "the names of these trust companies, bankers, and brokers who are engaged in this conspiracy should be printed under the head of TRAITORS in every newspaper in the land." And yet he did not print them himself. Is not he guilty of misprision of treason in withholding the names of the traitors?

The Maine newspapers are naturally much interested in the recent decision by the United States District Court for Kansas that the State Prohibitory Law of Kansas is null and void as regards liquor imported in "original packages," notwithstanding the passage by Congress of the Wilson Act. The Lewiston *Journal* tries to argue that the Prohibitory Law of Maine is valid in this respect, but the Portland *Press* confesses that it cannot see why the reasoning of the decision of the Federal court in Kansas is not fatal to the Maine statute. The Supreme Court of the latter State has already decided that the Maine law could not at the time of its enactment have applied to liquors in original packages, because it was beyond the power of the State to prohibit the sale of such liquors. Congress having since that decision given permission to the States to pass laws that shall prohibit the sale of liquor in the original packages, the question, in the view of the *Press*, is, "Has this permission of itself served to convert a law which the Supreme Court of Maine has decided not to apply to imported liquors in the original packages, into a law that does apply to this class of liquors? In other words, can the mere permission of Congress to the States to pass a broader law than they had the power to pass before it was given, broaden an existing law passed before that permission was given?" The *Press* cannot detect any flaw in the logic by which Judges Foster and Phillips in their recent decision held that it cannot, and, therefore, concludes that "the only way under the sun by which our Prohibitory Law can be made to apply to imported liquors in the original package is by its reënactment by the Legislature."

Senator Edmunds so seldom expresses a public opinion upon current issues outside the Capitol that his emphatic remarks regarding the "original-package" question at Montpelier last week are of especial significance. The occasion was the annual meeting of the Vermont Bar Association, and the President of that body had requested the Senator to give his views on national legislation as affecting the rights of the States. Mr. Edmunds spoke briefly, but forcibly. After expressing his satisfaction that the subject had been brought up, he said: "It has been a hundred years since the National Government was formed out of the States and by the States, and for the first time in that one hundred years has risen a question as to the extent and scope of the functions that the States have hitherto exercised, and without the preservation of which the Union could not have been formed, for not a single State would have gone into it. We are told now that if the principle is carried out, it is not possible for a State without the consent of Congress (and how Congress ever got the power, except in the several instances named in the Constitution, I am unable to say)—that a State cannot without the consent of Congress regulate its own internal affairs. I don't believe that sort of doctrine is going to stand review in the courts." He proceeded to declare his conviction that "the people of the States should have the charge of the preservation of their own autonomy, whether it relates to traffic in drugs, dynamite, or intoxicating liquors. Whatever restraints and regulations each State chooses to exercise, it is as indispensable, I think, for the safety of the nation as it is for the safety of each State, that each State regulate for itself in relation to such matters; each State must govern itself, and must have its own different policies and social institutions; each should have the inherent right to take care of itself in respect of such regulations. But, after all," he added, "we need not give ourselves any great uneasiness. Though the Supreme Court has, in this respect, in my opinion, invaded the rights of the States, they are liable to review and revise their action, as they have often done before, and very wisely too."

The recent controversy over the color-line in Texas is of interest throughout the country. The Houston and Texas Central Railroad began to employ black men in various departments of its service. Some of the white employees struck, and S. E. Wilkinson, Grand Master of the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen, in their behalf, applied to Mr. Dillingham, the receiver of the road, for the discharge of the blacks. Mr. Dillingham flatly refused to comply with the demand. "The colored men," he said, "have rendered faithful and efficient service, and I feel it would be unjust to them, as it would to any other person, to turn them out simply to put others in their places." The question was finally carried before the Supreme Council of the Federation, and that body decided that Mr. Dillingham was right. A noteworthy feature of the incident is the fact that Mr. Wilkinson is a Republican and a Grand Army man, while Mr. Dillingham was a Confederate and is a Democrat.

The outbreak of the Mafia in New Orleans lends interest to the statement as to immigration just published by the Bureau of Statistics. During the month of September, 1890, the arrivals of Italians in this country numbered 3,205, against only 1,776 in September, 1889; and during the nine months ending with September 30 the immigrants from that land aggregated no fewer than 46,748, against but 20,118 in the corresponding period of last year. Hardly less desirable than the Italians are the Poles, who are now coming very rapidly, the arrivals from January 1 to September 30 being 14,821, against only 3,887 in the same months of 1889; the Hungarians, 17,777 this year, against 10,111 during the same months of last year; the Bohemians, for whom the figures are 5,424 and 2,070; and the Russians, 32,360 in the first nine months of 1890, against 27,240 in the same months of 1889. Here is a total in three-quarters of a year of 117,130 immigrants from the most backward nations of Europe, by far the larger part of whom represent the most ignorant, if not also the most depraved, class of their populations. How much such stuff as this can the national stomach digest without permanent harm?

No tributes to the character of the late Justice Miller of the United States Supreme Court are more significant or gratifying than those which come from the Democratic press of the South. He was an earnest Republican from the origin of that party until the day of his death, and is re-

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ported to have said two or three years ago that he was praying that he might live until a Republican President could appoint his successor. Yet he never hesitated to take issue with a fundamental feature of Republican policy, and more than once, as in the case of the decision annulling the Civil-Rights Act for unconstitutionality, threw the whole weight of his great influence against measures carried through Congress by his party. His arguments in such cases were so unanswerable that the Republican leaders, whose policy he had helped to overthrow, could not gainsay them, while the impartiality which his course evinced commanded the hearty endorsement of the Democrats. Happily, during his last years he received abundant evidence of the high esteem in which he was held by his fellow-citizens of both parties in all parts of the country.

The eminence of Justice Miller emphasizes the importance of the duty laid upon the President by his death. The appointment of a Judge of the highest Court is always a great responsibility, but it seems the more serious when the place to which he succeeds has been filled for nearly a generation by one of the greatest ornaments of our judicial system. The story is current that President Harrison wishes to give the office to his old law partner, Attorney-General Miller. He was credited with the same disposition at the time of Justice Matthews's death last year, but the protests of Republican newspapers were so numerous and earnest that he was dissuaded from the plan of putting so commonplace a person on the bench. We are glad to see that protests of the same sort are again made. The Philadelphia *Bulletin*, for example, says: "Harrison's judgment in such matters is entitled to a good deal of respect; but in view of the fact that the Attorney-General's reputation as a lawyer was limited at the time of his entrance into the Cabinet, and that he has had no opportunity whatever for performing any service that would enable his countrymen to form an estimate of his capacity, it is certain that his nomination at this time would not command popular approval, and might encounter serious opposition in the Senate."

The loss of the Eccles election in England by the Tories, who have held the constituency firmly since Mr. Gladstone took up the Irish Home Rule, after four years' observation of the Balfour experiment in Ireland, and in particular with the Tipperary trials fresh in the minds of the voters, is a crushing blow for the Ministry, and may hasten a dissolution. Nothing has more clearly brought out the nature of their experiment than these Tipperary trials. The men who constitute the court which was to try Dillon and O'Brien are removable magistrates chosen from one class of the community, and generally ill-educated men who have failed in life. They are not simply committing magistrates either, who conduct preliminary examinations. They are judge and jury all in one, who try and condemn to ignominious punishments public men for words spoken on the platform. Moreover, before conducting these trials they head the police who disperse the meetings at which the words are spoken. One of them, named Shannon, who sits in the Tipperary case, not only is a violent partisan, but has had a personal row with Dillon, and led the police in an attack on a meeting at which Dillon spoke. His presence on the bench under these circumstances was naturally objected to by the defendants, but he refused to withdraw, and is sustained in his refusal by the Government and the English Tory press. It is very much—but much worse—as if Inspector Byrnes, after dispersing a labor meeting, and having a hand-to-hand fight with the orators, were then to open court and try them himself for language inciting to violence, and sentence them to the penitentiary. As an illustration of the way in which this sort of thing weakens all over the country the traditional respect for the principles of free government, the *Saturday Review*, endorsing Shannon, says the reason the defendants objected to being tried by him was "that he knew too much about their guilt."

The grand manœuvres of the troops in the North of France this fall have raised some very curious and important questions in military science. The use of the smokeless powder deprives strategists in a great measure of one of the chief means of determining an enemy's position. In this respect it carries back the art of war towards the primitive times when men fought with arrows. Many things that lately were comparatively of but little importance in attracting the enemy's attention must now be looked after and avoided. Some discussion is now going on about uniforms: for example, Does the color red more than others catch the eye at a considerable distance, as has been believed? Late experience seems to show that either very light or very dark colors are more easily seen than red in such a case. In the French manœuvres often the battalions of chasseurs could be made out when infantry could not; and the busts of the men clad in their dark jackets were discernible when their heads and legs could not be seen. This, of course, was at great distances; below 1,000 or 1,500 metres it made little difference. Still, since battles are likely more and more to be fought at long range, red uniforms may be found to possess some advantages. In our civil war the red trousers of the Zouaves were, we believe, looked on with disfavor as offering too good a target for the enemy, and also as inducing him to aim lower, and so avoid overshooting. But this was at rather close quarters. More than of anything else soldiers are likely to learn to rid themselves of everything white and of everything that glitters. Often in the Nord a sparkling line could be made out in the distance where nothing else could be distinguished. This was caused by the flashing of officers' sabres; and from their number and disposition a very good guess could be made as to the importance of the opposing force. Sabres and bayonets will have to be bronzed in future, as well as camp utensils; tents, also, must be no longer white, nor the men's havelocks, nor officers' pugarees. Apropos of these questions, which the *Temps* has been discussing, a correspondent writes to it to point out that it was precisely because its color attracted less attention, even under the shining skies of Italy, that Garibaldi chose the red shirt for a uniform for himself and his men.

It is no secret that, ever since 1864, the chief desire of all good Danes has been to regain possession of the northern portion of Schleswig, which, in spite of Germany's determined efforts, has remained true to the mother country. Southern Jutland, as the Danes persist in calling it, is as dissatisfied under German rule as Alsace and Lorraine. During his visit to Fredensborg this summer, it is reported that the Kaiser referred with regret in a conversation with the King to his unpopularity in Denmark, whereupon the King frankly stated its chief cause, and said that the Kaiser would win the gratitude of a whole people by returning the Danish portion of Schleswig. The Kaiser replied that the annexation had occurred during his childhood, and that besides nothing could be done without the consent of the Reichstag. That Germany would voluntarily surrender one of her richest provinces is, of course, out of the question, and therefore a year ago the Danish Government formed a plan for its recovery by barter. The Danish Minister at St. James was instructed to treat with England for the exchange of the Danish West Indies for Heligoland, which in turn was to be made the price for Southern Jutland. The negotiations fell through, in consequence, it is said, of the Minister's procrastination, and, as is known, Germany received the coveted little island directly from England.

The truth of this rumor rests upon the sudden recall of the Minister for no apparent cause, after a service extending over many years, and upon the fact that it emanated from the *Berlingske Tidende*, the Government organ, whose statements are almost invariably to be depended upon. The nature of the islands, too, and the advantage to England of their acquisition, lend it additional color. The islands of St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John, forming the Danish possessions in the West Indies, have a total area of 118 square miles, and a population, according to the census of 1880, of 33,763. Their exports to Denmark in 1887 amounted to 317,000 kr. (say $85,600), and to the United Kingdom £24,660 (say $135,000), while their imports in the same year from the latter amounted to more than $500,000. The exports consist of unrefined sugar and the imports of coal and cotton goods. The islands are admirably governed, and in point of order and prosperity are in marked contrast to many of their neighbors. Their situation with respect to the English islands of Antigua, St. Kitts, and Jamaica would make them of special value to England, and that country would no doubt regard their acquisition as a decided advantage both commercially and politically, for which Heligoland would seem but a very small price.

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THE NORTH IN THE CENSUS.

THE population of each of the Northern States and Territories has been given out by the Census Office. The figures announced are subject to revision, but unless some extensive recounts are ordered it is not likely that they will be substantially changed. The following table gives the population in 1890 and 1880 of each of the Northern States and Territories, with the increase and decrease and the percentage of increase or decrease:

State or Territory.	Population, 1890.	Population, 1880.	Increase.	Percentage of inc.,
Arizona.....	59,691	40,440	19,251	47.60
California....	1,204,002	864,694	339,308	39.24
Colorado.....	410,975	194,327	216,648	111.48
Connecticut..	745,861	622,700	123,161	19.78
Idaho.....	84,229	32,610	51,619	158.29
Illinois.....	3,818,536	3,077,871	740,665	24.06
Indiana.....	2,189,030	1,978,301	210,729	10.65
Iowa.....	1,906,729	1,624,615	282,114	17.36
Kansas.....	1,423,485	996,096	427,389	42.91
Maine.....	660,261	648,936	11,325	1.75
Massachusetts	2,233,407	1,783,085	450,322	25.26
Michigan.....	2,089,792	1,636,937	452,855	27.66
Minnesota ...	1,300,017	780,773	519,244	66.50
Montana.....	131,769	39,159	92,610	236.50
Nebraska	1,056,793	452,402	604,391	133.59
Nevada.....	44,327	62,266	*17,939	*28.81
N. Hampshire	375,827	346,991	28,836	8.31
New Jersey..	1,441,017	1,131,116	309,901	27.40
New Mexico.	144,862	119,565	25,297	21.16
New York...	5,981,934	5,082,871	899,063	17.69
North Dakota	182,425	36,909	145,516	394.26
Ohio.....	3,666,719	3,198,062	468,657	14.65
Oklahoma ...	61,701			
Oregon.....	312,490	174,768	137,722	78.80
Pennsylvania	5,248,574	4,282,891	965,683	22.55
Rhode Island	345,343	276,531	68,812	24.89
South Dakota	327,848	98,268	229,580	233.63
Utah.....	206,492	143,963	62,529	45.44
Vermont.....	332,205	332,286	*81	*0.02
Washington..	349,516	75,116	274,400	365.30
Wisconsin ...	1,683,467	1,315,497	367,970	27.97
Wyoming....	60,589	20,789	39,800	191.45

It appears that there has been an increase in every Northern State and Territory except Vermont and Nevada. In the former the decrease is almost inappreciable, but in the latter it amounted to 28.81 per cent. of the whole population. Nevada, which has been a State more than a quarter of a century, has to-day fewer inhabitants than any other State or Territory in the Union. It has one United States Senator for every 22,164 persons, and New York one for every 2,990,967. The absolute increase has been greatest in Pennsylvania, which, during the last decade, as well as during the two which preceded it, has grown more rapidly than New York. After Pennsylvania come New York, Illinois, and Nebraska in the order named. The largest percentage of increase is shown by North Dakota, which is followed by Washington, Montana, and South Dakota.

While the absolute increase in the North as a whole has been greater than during any previous decade, its percentage of increase has been less, falling below even that of the war decade of 1860 to 1870. The following table will show the population of the North at each census, the increase during the decade, the percentage of increase in the North, and the percentage of increase in the country as a whole:

Census.	Population of North.	Inc. during decade.	Per cent. of inc. of North.	Per cent. of inc. of country.
1890....	40,079,913	8,609,078	27.36	*24.94
1880....	31,470,835	6,921,777	28.19	30.07
1870....	24,549,056	5,421,108	28.34	22.63
1860....	19,127,948	5,600,728	41.41	35.58
1850....	13,527,220	3,798,298	39.04	35.87
1840....	9,728,922	2,716,523	38.74	32.67
1830....	7,012,399	1,863,376	36.19	33.55
1820....	5,149,023	1,390,024	36.98	33.07
1810....	3,758,999	1,072,417	39.92	36.38
1800....	2,686,582	718,542	36.52	35.10
1790....	1,968,040			

"North" in the above table is, of course, used in a political and social rather than in a strictly geographical sense, and includes all the country except the sixteen former slave States and the District of Columbia.

During the past decade the foreign immigration has amounted to 5,245,530. The census of 1880 showed that more than nine-tenths of the entire foreign-born population then in the country resided in the Northern States and Territories. There has probably been little, if any, change in this respect in the last decade. It may therefore be assumed that the North between 1880 and 1890 gained from immigration about 4,700,000 inhabitants, or 15 per cent. of its population in 1880. If such be the case, the gain from natural causes cannot have exceeded 12½ per cent., and the ratio of natural increase throughout the North as a whole has now fallen below that of Great Britain, in which the statistics of births and deaths show that the rate of natural increase is about 14¼ per cent. per decade.

With the single apparent exception of the decade from 1870 to 1880, the North has increased at a more rapid rate than the country as a whole. We say apparent exception, because there is little doubt that much of the increase in the population of the South revealed by the tenth census was due to the defective enumeration of the population of that section in 1870.

For the purpose of studying in detail the growth of the North at different periods of our national life, it will be found convenient to divide the States and Territories making up that section into five groups. The first of these includes the New England States; the second the Middle States of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania; the third the five States, viz., Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, which have been formed out of the old Territory northwest of the Ohio River. This third group of States we may call the Northern Central. The fourth group is composed of the States, and the Territory of Oklahoma, lying west of the Mississippi and east of the Rocky Mountains. These States, viz., Iowa, Minnesota, the Dakotas, Nebraska, and Kansas, and the Territory of Oklahoma, are all predominantly agricultural. We may call them the Northwestern States. The fifth and last group includes all the States and Territories of the Rocky Mountains, the Great Basin, and the Pacific Coast. The following table will show the percentage of the entire population of the North residing at the date of each census in each one of these five groups as above defined:

PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POPULATION OF THE NORTH RESIDING AT EACH CENSUS IN EACH SECTION OF THE NORTH.

Census.	New England.	Middle States.	Northern Central States.	Northwestern States.	Pacific and Mountain States.
1890.....	11.71	31.61	23.55	15.62	7.51
1880.....	12.74	33.36	35.61	12.67	5.62
1870.....	14.21	35.89	37.17	8.70	4.03
1860.....	16.39	39.00	36.21	5.16	3.24
1850.....	20.17	43.61	33.44	1.47	1.32
1840.....	22.98	46.52	30.06	.44	
1830.....	27.88	51.16	20.96		
1820.....	32.23	52.38	15.39		
1810.....	39.16	53.60	7.24		
1800.....	45.89	52.21	1.90		
1790.....	51.29	48.71			

At the first census the New England States, the first of the Northern States settled by Englishmen, still contained more than half of the entire population of the North. There were already some few settlers on the right bank of the Ohio and clustered around the old French forts and trading posts in the Illinois country, but they do not figure in the census of 1790. At that time the New England and the Middle States together with the South made up the United States. The rapid settlement of the back country of Pennsylvania and New York (the latter largely peopled by New Englanders) by the time the second census was taken, deprived the older group of States of their supremacy in point of numbers, the plurality passing to the Middle States and remaining with them for seventy years, when it followed the course of empire westward, and has since been held by the States of the Northern Central group. For four decades, from 1800 to 1840, the Middle States had within their borders more than half the population of the entire North. By 1840 the growth of the trans-Allegheny States had been so great that their population, together with that of the New England States, outnumbered the inhabitants of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. It does not seem at all likely that any one of the groups will ever again contain more people than all the others combined. The New England States had their maximum percentage of the total population of the North in 1790, the Middle States in 1810, and the Northern Central States in 1870. Since these respective dates these groups have steadily lost ground in percentage of the entire population. For the last twenty years it has been the two

*Decrease.

*Percentage of increase in 169 supervisors' districts. Six districts estimated.

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groups west of the Mississippi which have been gaining at the expense of the other three. Almost a quarter of the entire population of the North now live west of that river, beyond which as late as half-a-century ago not one-half of one per cent. of the inhabitants could be found.

WOMEN IN MUNICIPAL AFFAIRS.

THE refusal of the audience at the County Democracy meeting held to ratify the municipal nominations, to listen to a speech on the tariff, was one of the good signs of the times. Another and better one is the open published participation in the canvass of a considerable number of women known for their activity in the field of good works. These signs are good because they indicate the gradual disappearance of the notion that municipal administration must necessarily be party administration, and that no one can make himself heard on municipal questions without being justly accused of "mixing himself up in politics." We cannot have a good city government until this notion is destroyed. It is the great buttress of our local corruption. It will be observed that all corruptionists studiously keep it alive as an essential to the permanence and success of their business. They want to keep the city revenues as stakes to be played for exclusively by professionals, and therefore treat all comments on the game by outsiders as a gross impertinence, especially if the outsiders should happen, as in the case of clergymen or women, to be persons who usually are occupied mainly with the moral aspect of affairs.

As a matter of fact, the interest of women in municipal reform is much greater than that of the men. They may be truly said to be the only portion of our population who have not lost that sound tradition of municipal government which makes the condition of the city the first and great concern of the inhabitants as voters. To women far more than to most men, the objects of municipal administration, the condition of the streets, of the sewers, of the school-houses, of the hospitals and almshouses, and of the police, are of daily and absorbing interest. Whatever improvement has taken place in the condition of Bellevue Hospital, for example, and of the hospitals on Blackwell's and Hart's Islands during the past twenty years—and it is very great—has, as a rule, been due to women's initiative and labors. No more destructive attacks on municipal abuses, in one particular neighborhood, have been made during the past four or five years, than those of an association of ladies, mainly Jewish, up town, known as the "East Side Association." Everything that concerns health and concerns education occupies the minds of women ten times more than it occupies the minds of their husbands and fathers. Their standards of administrative efficiency, too, are 50 per cent. higher than those of men. That remarkable case of municipal maladministration—the appointment of "Fatty" Walsh to be Warden of the Tombs—could not possibly have been perpetrated by women; it *was* perpetrated by highly respectable men. There is, we are sure, no woman of respectable character or fair intelligence in this city who would not have been shocked by it had it been proposed to her. She would have felt it in the very marrow of her bones as a discredit to American civilization, and have felt even still more its gross inhumanity. Women really bring to the consideration of municipal questions a loftiness of ideal and a readiness to take some action about abuses, which is only found in an occasional business man.

This is mainly due to the absorbing influence on men of professional and business pursuits. Ninety-nine men out of a hundred in this city to-day start in life with the idea that unless they make a good deal of money, the world will consider their lives a failure, and in order to achieve this sort of success, therefore, it is human and natural that they should be ready to put aside all other concerns. On this fact Tammany builds most of its arrangements, and has always done so. And these arrangements are so perfect that after "the Organization" has secured one term of power, the difficulty of arousing the male portion of the community against it is very great, as we have seen during the past two years in the present case. One of the first things Tammany sets about when it gets into office—after settling the division of the spoils of office—is the deadening of the public conscience. The lawyers—not, with some distinguished exceptions, by any means a public-spirited body in these days, we are sorry to say—it subdues through a corrupt judge or two, through the Sheriff's and Register's and County Clerk's offices. The leaders of the profession it soothes or blinds by all sorts of civilities; the juniors it terrifies by threatening to make their nascent practice tedious or costly. Some of the younger simpletons it seduces by small offices which appear to be the opening of a glorious political career. The rich of the business world, whom its scandals would otherwise disgust, it placates through low assessments and great obsequiousness. It secures the silence or condonation or incredulity of a portion of the press through business favors, or a personal acquaintance with the publishers, or the judicious distribution of little spoils among the reporters and contributors.

In one way or another, in short, Tammany is always, by a year's tenure of office, able to create and diffuse as many strong presumptions in its favor as will give an air of expert knowledge to the poor devils whom it picks up for office among the liquor-dealers, and pugilists, and loafers, so that any small political adventurer, however ignorant or corrupt, may rise up before the astonished community as an authority on paving, or draining, or sanitary matters, or general municipal administration. We have at this moment a Commissioner of Public Works whose sole preparation for the place was service as a clerk in a justice's court and in the County Clerk's office; a Mayor who got ready for his place in "road-houses" and on race-courses; a Deputy Commissioner of Public Works who got ready for his duties by keeping a "dive," and so on nearly through the whole list. *Men* get reconciled to these things very easily, as we know through actual experience; women do not; and let us add that, in our belief, if women's attention were directed to municipal matters, if they made a study of municipal administration, as part and parcel of the means of home comfort and safety, men could not get reconciled so easily. The indifferent, or despondent, or mocking view of attempts at municipal reform would soon cease. Young men of intelligence would not, as many do now, fail to register, and make a holiday of election day, to be spent in the country. The women may not know much about the tariff, or about foreign policy, or transportation, or State rights, and (let us make this concession, for argument's sake, to the opponents of women suffrage) may, owing to the distance of these subjects in their field of mental vision, be incapable of learning; but in the field of municipal government they are as competent as they are in their own kitchens or drawing-rooms. They know a "Jake" or "Mike" when they see him far better than a man does, and hate his works and ways with a sacred virulence of which most men are incapable.

At all events, nothing is to-day so important as to extend as far as possible, among all classes of the population, interest in municipal matters as really household matters. There is no mystery about them whatever, though the practical politicians try to surround them with a good deal. What the city needs is something within the meanest comprehension. Why the city cannot have what it needs is the problem with which we are now struggling. In capacity for dealing with this the educated women of the community are really as competent as the great bulk of the men. In fact, they are only surpassed in this point by the few lawyers like Mr. Scott who have made a special study of the legislation affecting the city, and have carefully watched its operation. But, more than all, they bring to the work of trying to make things better an enthusiasm and hopefulness at which New York men are disposed to sneer, but without which our Augean stables will never be cleaned out.

MUTATIS MUTANDIS.

ONE of the tales of the ingenious and inimitable Bastiat had for its moral: What we see and what we do not see. The son of Jacques Bonhomme carelessly smashes a pane of glass. The father is angry, but the sympathetic neighbors finally comfort him and themselves with the reflection that it at least gives a job to the glazier and makes trade good. The glazier mends the pane and pockets his six francs, blessing the scapegrace son. That is what we see. What we do not see is that the citizen, having spent his six francs, cannot employ the shoemaker or the carpenter, as otherwise he very likely would have done. What we see is the immediate employment of one person; what we do not see is the possible employment of other persons and the saving in wealth. This tale has long done good service in the hands

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of the opponents of protectionism. What we see is the protected factory, with its hundreds of workingmen; what we do not see is the tax on every consumer in the shape of an increased price, and the waste of capital in unproductive industries.

The suddenness with which the McKinley Bill was put into operation has, for the time being, reversed the position of the story-tellers. The free-trader can now say: What we see is the increased price of many articles of consumption; what we do not see is the increase in the wages of the American laborer. What we see is the embarrassment of the importer of foreign commodities; what we do not see is the expansion of American manufactures on the basis of dear raw materials. What we see is Trusts and combinations to keep up prices; what we do not see is competition among home producers which will lower prices. What we see is the farmer paying higher prices for what he uses; what we do not see is how he is going to dispose of his surplus abroad when we refuse to take foreign commodities in exchange.

Another tale was the "Petition from the manufacturers of candles, lamps, chandeliers, reflectors, snuffers, extinguishers; and from the producers of tallow, oil, resin, alcohol, and generally of everything used for lights," that the Legislature would take measures to exclude the competition of sunlight in order that there might be an increased demand for home products. We have reversed that tale also. McKinley and his colleagues in the Legislature have excluded competition (the gifts that were more or less gratuitous), but they are greatly surprised that it has resulted in increased prices. They complain bitterly that the petitioners, after having obtained their petition, should benefit by it. But what did they expect? Did they not know that raising the duties on commodities and putting the law in operation with one week's notice placed a monopoly value on the supply of such commodities in the hands of the merchant? Can we blame the seller that he immediately raised the price of a commodity which he could not replace except at an increased price? Can the people who exclude the light of the sun complain when the price of tallow goes up?

But, leaving Bastiat, there are some more serious tales of political economy which do not need to be reversed in the telling, but which will repeat themselves with the certainty of natural law. One teaches that when you are increasing taxation, you should go slowly. An old tax to which people have adjusted themselves is often easier to bear than a new one arranged on a more scientific basis. Steps towards reforming taxes should be slow and tentative, lest existing economic arrangements be disturbed, just expectations be disappointed, and uncertainty be introduced into business affairs where certainty above all is desirable. What shall we say, then, of legislation which suddenly raises the import duties on a great variety of articles, often arbitrarily, and in many cases obscurely and indirectly, so that no one can make calculation for the future? There is a flavor of brutality about the statesmanship which will recklessly disarrange the existing order of things, and answer complaints by assuring the people that cheapness is a bad thing.

Finally, there is one tale which political economy has been repeating ever since the time of Tooke, and of which we are certainly about to have an illustration. That is, that when prices rise, the price which rises slowest and latest of all is the price of labor, viz., wages. This has been proved over and over again. To increase the prices of commodities, all the dealer has to do is to mark them up or revise his list. Of this we have had abundant examples during the past three weeks. It has not come to our ears, however, that any employer has put up the wages of his employees. Neither have we heard of any general revision of the salaries of clerks, book-keepers, and school-teachers, nor of the fees of physicians and professional men. It always requires a struggle to force up wages or to readjust fixed salaries. But every wage-earner and every salaried man is a consumer, and, while his income account remains the same, his expense account is inevitably growing larger. Neither does the dealer seem to profit. While his present stock lasts he gains, but as soon as he replenishes it, he is simply doing the same business on a scale of increased prices, that is, with an extra amount of capital needed. All these things are truisms in political economy and have been well known for many years. But it is seldom that a community has had them brought so vividly before its eyes. Every man who keeps a cash account, and every wife who keeps a careful eye on the household expenses, can see the effect of the tariff in the increased expense account on the one side and the stationary income account on the other.

THE MORMON MUDDLE IN UTAH.

SALT LAKE CITY, October 13, 1890.

THE expected has happened: the Mormon leaders have outwitted the Gentiles, and the politicians are in a quandary. The Idaho test-oath excluded from the polls the members of all organizations which enjoin polygamy as a duty and set up their own edicts as higher than the laws of the land. But it is difficult to see why the mass of the Mormons cannot now take the Idaho test-oath without fear of conviction for perjury.

After the favorite method of ecclesiastical casuists, the Mormon leaders have proved from the writings of their prophet that, under the circumstances now existing, it is profitable for the Saints to yield obedience to the powers that be, and lawful to abstain from polygamy until the truth shall have made further headway in convincing the nations. Under the present stress, President Woodruff counsels the faithful to abstain from the practice of polygamy, and the General Conference of Latter-Day Saints sustains him in his action by unanimous vote.

The reasoning is ingenious. The Lord, speaking through Joseph Smith fifty years ago, said:

"Verily, verily, I say unto you, that when I give a commandment to any of the sons of men to do a work unto my name, and those sons of men go with all their might, and with all they have, to perform that work, and cease not their diligence, and their enemies come upon them, and hinder them from performing that work; behold it behoveth me to require that work no more at the hands of those sons of men, but to accept of their offerings."

It is on this basis, according to George Q. Cannon, that "President Woodruff has felt himself justified in issuing this manifesto." And Woodruff himself justifies his conduct by numerous precedents:

"The Lord required us to build a temple in Jackson County. We were prevented by violence from doing it. . . . A great many things have been required of us, and we have not been able to do them, because of those that surrounded us in the world. . . . The Lord does not require at our hands that we cannot do."

Such were the specious arguments by which the Conference of Latter-Day Saints were convinced on the 6th of October.

Of course the Gentiles doubt the sincerity of the Mormon leaders, but the politicians are puzzled to know what to do about it. It certainly would be a questionable proceeding to require even a Mormon to swear that he never would do a certain thing, even though he should in time convince the majority of his fellow-citizens that it was a right and laudable thing to do. And so, according to last reports, Judge Zane even is accepting their oaths and allowing Mormons to become naturalized. The result can scarcely be different in respect to the Idaho test-oath.

It is evident that the general public is too oblivious of the fact that Mormonism is deeply rooted in religious sentiment, mistaken though it be. A few months ago a lady in whose judgment I have great confidence, attended one of their typical "female prayer-meetings." There were present many of the elderly women who had endured at the outset the hardships formerly connected with crossing the plains. Their exhortations to faithfulness were earnest and their reminiscences touching. As the meeting drew to a close, the stranger was asked to add any remarks she chose. This opened the way for asking them questions as to their inner feeling with reference to polygamy. To a woman they all defended it most vigorously, and were profuse in rendering reasons in justification of it. As to their relations to the Government, they said that of course they must submit for the present to the law of the land, but they were confident that eventually the world would be convinced of the truth of their arguments. We may pity them as much as we please, and regret that they have read so poorly the lesson of the world's experience with polygamy, but of the religious sincerity of the mass of the Mormons there can be no reasonable doubt. In attending a Sabbath-school, the infant class was found to be under the care of a granddaughter of the late President Taylor. After the familiar methods now in vogue in such schools, she was catechising them as to the work of the faithful members of their sect. "Where is such a one?" (mentioning his name). "A missionary in California," was the prompt reply. And so with the round of their missionaries in all the world. Every child knew the answers. "And where is such a one?" (mentioning the name of one in their neighborhood who had been arrested for polygamy). "In the *pen*," was the prompt reply. Something more than drastic political methods is necessary for the correction of an evil thus rooted in the consent of all practising it.

It is with regret, therefore, that we have seen a recent religious opponent of Mormonism urge that the only cure is to come from action of the United States Government. Already

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the Government has confiscated $750,000 worth of Mormon property, and this is to be sold for the benefit of the school fund of Utah. But all this is of little avail so long as Mormons control the schools. He would, therefore, have the schools all turned over to the general Government, and Mormon teachers entirely excluded from them. To encourage Gentile immigration, he would have the general Government inaugurate vast irrigation schemes, and would have the missionary societies prepare to close their schools and devote their strength to petitioning Congress to do all the educational work of the Territory.

A greater mistake could not be made. It is not so that this kind of unclean spirits is cast out. In view of the deep-seated nature of the delusion, the Christian public is not to expect so easy a cure or such ready relief from its own heavy responsibility in the matter. As illustrating the situation, it is instructive to remark that the female singers furnishing music for the Protestant church which I attended yesterday were both of them Mormons.

It is a mistake to suppose that the Mormons are utterly impervious to the ordinary influences affecting the beliefs and practices of men. In attending the services yesterday at the Tabernacle, I was of course impressed by the great audience of well-dressed and intelligent people, the grand music, the real ability of the addresses, and the manifest religious fervor of the congregation. But for the respectful references to the "Prophet Joseph Smith," one could well have believed himself in a Campbellite or Methodist meeting. For the most part the arguments and exhortations were based on the Bible, and the people responded to the sentiments of which they approved with a universal but subdued "Amen."

Nevertheless, the audience, estimated at 4 000, was scarcely more than half what it used to be when the city was much smaller than now. Salt Lake City is having a "boom." Real estate has, in three years, increased twenty-fold in nominal value. Other Mormons besides the bishops and elders are becoming wealthy. The same influences which are so rapidly ameliorating the rigors of the traditional theology among the Christian sects are dispelling the illusions of Mormonism. Mining interests are rapidly drawing the attention of outside capitalists, and the exclusiveness of past years is now effectually broken up. If there were a general United States law regulating marriages and making polygamy a crime, it would seem better to admit Utah as a State, and throw upon the Gentile residents the political and other responsibilities which it is wholesome for such a large and intelligent body to bear. The evils of polygamy are becoming so manifest in the second and third generations that the Mormon women cannot long remain in the present state of delusion, and the Gentile element is already present in the large centres in sufficient force to afford protection to such as revolt against the tyranny of the Mormon hierarchy and, what is even more powerful, the Mormon public sentiment.

G. Frederick Wright.

AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

Princeton, October 23.

The fall meeting of this Society was held in the Murray Hall of the Philadelphian Society, Princeton, on Wednesday afternoon and Thursday morning. The President, the Rev. Dr. Hayes Ward, was in the chair.

President William A. P. Martin of Peking, China, read a paper on "Chinese Ideas of Inspiration." Dr. Martin emphasized the necessity of clearly distinguishing between the materialism of the Taoist, the idealism of the Buddhist, and the ethical Saduceeism of the Confucianist. The Taoist believes that those who attain immortality form a pantheon which rules over the destinies of man. From this belief a system was evolved very similar to our spiritualism. Only the spirits of a favored few are able to resist the inroads of decay and to defy destruction. Of these the bodies become spirit-bodies and take on new powers. They have the possibility of spirit manifestation and of renewing their intercourse with human beings, especially when in an hypnotic state. One of the chief sources through which spirits manifest themselves is the magic pen, a precursor of the planchette. A large literature, supposed to have been communicated in this way, has grown up which claims to be a revelation.

The Buddhists in China have adopted this practice of procuring spiritual manifestations, notwithstanding the many protests against the great forgeries committed in its name. For the faithful, however, there is no form of existence higher than that of Buddha, no authority beyond his. For the Buddhist the only question that remains is the authenticity of the writings ascribed to the founder of his religion.

Confucianism is really *the* religion of China. Its canon consists of nine books, pre-Confucian and post-Confucian. To the former belong the four books edited by the great master, and the 'Ti-Ki,' the book of rites, which preserves the traditions of earlier ages. Only two sketches therein are claimed to be of supernatural origin. The one is the table of mystic symbols, said to have been brought from the waters of the Yellow River on the back of a dragon-shaped horse. These are the figures on the shell of the tortoise, which ceased to be consulted only when the book was accepted as divine. The other sketch is the outline of a political philosophy, called the *Hung-fan*, the "Great Plan," which was brought to the Emperor Zu from the waters of the river Loh by a similar monster. Both stories are endorsed by Confucius. The 'Book of Odes' (1000 B. C.) goes further, and says that God reveals his will through *man*, and raises up teachers. These are the *Sheng-jin*, the "wise men," whom posterity honored as divine messengers. Confucius is the highest of them all. He himself is confident that his teaching comes from heaven, but not by supernatural means. To the Chinese, Confucius is not a god but a perfect man; not a prophet, but a constant manifestation of ideal excellence. As such his writings are sacred, and not to be altered.

Prof H. Collitz (Bryn Mawr) presented an able contribution to the phonology of the European and Indo-Iranian languages in a paper entitled "On the Existence of a Primitive Aryan *sh*." Dr. A. V. W. Jackson (Columbia), in his paper "On Avestan *ayökhshusta* (molten metal) in the Gathas," showed by a reference to Bundahish xxx, 17-32, that by this word Zoroaster meant not the sword, but a fiery flood of molten metal. He taught that, at the Judgment, this metal would cleanse the world. In this way we can explain why in later times Khshathra Vairya presided over metals. In another paper, "Avestan Notes," Dr. Jackson suggested a parallel from the Gathas to the thought "weighed in the balance and found wanting." Dr. W. R. Martin (Trinity), in a paper on the "Position of the Pahlavi Question," traced the development of the study of this important question, dwelling particularly upon the method to be pursued.

Prof. W. D. Whitney (Yale) sent a critique of Boehtlingk's edition of the Upanishads, in which he showed the importance and the trustworthiness of this edition of the Sanskrit classic. Prof. M. Bloomfield (Johns Hopkins) explained an obscure passage in the funeral hymn Rig Veda x.16,13—14, by copious allusions taken from the later literature. In a paper "On Mourning Women in the Atharva Veda," Prof. Bloomfield showed that there were good grounds for assuming that professional mourners existed as early as Vedic times. The Rev. Joseph K. Wight (New Hamburgh, N. Y.) sketched the views of Brahmanism and Confucianism in regard to the origin of the universe, in a paper "On Early Cosmogonies of India and China."

Prof. M. Jastrow (University of Pennsylvania) spoke "On the Founding of Carthage." He dwelt on the important part played by Cyprus in the founding of this city, and endeavored to fix the date at which it occurred. Prof. Jastrow also submitted some advanced sheets of an Assyrian glossary prepared by the Semitic Seminary of Johns Hopkins University. Prof. G. K. Moore (Andover) explained that the usual translation of *Canaan*, 'lowland,' rested simply upon an old error. Rosenmüller had been misled by the Latin word "demissus" in Golius's lexicon. In 1833 Gesenius adopted the explanation of Rosenmüller, and it has in this way become a fixed tradition in our dictionaries. Prof. Moore likewise explained that the place in old Judea called *Qiryath Sepher* (Josh. xv, 15, etc.) and translated 'Book-city' should be read *Qiryath Sephar*, *i. e.*, 'Border-town.' Prof. W. R. Harper (Yale), in "Notes on the Syntax of the Tiglath Pileser Inscriptions," gave a study of the syntax of these inscriptions, as compared with the syntax of the Sennacherib (Taylor) inscription. Prof. Harper dwelt specially on the accusative and the attributive adjective. The accusative ending *he finds* used almost with the rigidity of the Arabic. The use of the adjective is also very rigid. There is little or no disagreement between adjective and substantive. The number of cases of a noun in the accusative followed by an adjective in the accusative is strikingly large. Rev. W. Muss-Arnolt (Johns Hopkins) sent some "Notes on Assyrian Etymologies"; Prof. J. D. Davis (Princeton) a paper "On the Moabite Stone and the Hebrew Records." Dr. Robert F. Harper (Yale) presented a criticism on Abel and Winckler's 'Keilschrifttexte zum Gebrauch bei Vorlesungen.'

After a lengthy discussion it was decided that it would be more advantageous for the Society to meet but once in the year, and for a longer period of time; and, if possible, to have the business meeting held at other cities in addition to Boston. The question of applying for a national charter was left undecided, as the members of the Society were divided as to the advisability of such action.

At the evening social gathering at Prof. Marquand's house, Dr. Cyrus Adler spoke on the proposed exhibit of Oriental life and history at the coming Fair in Chicago. On the motion of Prof. R. Gottheil the following minute was unanimously adopted: "The American Oriental Society has heard with pleasure that the Committee of the World's Columbian Exposition intends to make an exhibit of Oriental life and history, and cordially offers any scientific assistance in its power."

The Society will meet again in May next at Boston.

R. J. H. G.

ITALY IN THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE.

Rome, October 15, 1890.

Your Paris correspondent, in a letter which is now a month old, but is as true to-day as it

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was then, says, "The triple alliance professes to be purely defensive"; and the refrain occurs so often in French journalism in one shape or another, and alternates so continually with distinct intimations that the alliance is regarded in France with the opposite conviction, viz., that it is intended as an instrument for the suppression of that country, that it is evident that the French really believe it and hope to make the rest of the world, out of the alliance, take their view of it. Probably no worse case of deliberate and persistent self-deception has ever been witnessed by journalism or politics. Living in the circle of the alliance as I do, and continually in intercourse with a certain number of Italian publicists who certainly know the intentions and scope of the league with the central Powers, I am competent to put the Italian case, if not with authority, yet with so much *connaissance de cause* that I am sure that if Crispi were asked to do it, he would follow the same line of demonstration if he cared to notice it.

The peace of Europe is in danger from two probable aggressive movements, and no more. The first and most menacing of these is the attempt of the Russians to regain their control of Bulgaria, Servia, and the South Slavic tribes generally, and the other is the determination of France to recover the lost provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. I defy the worst alarmist in France to point out any other tendency which can be considered as a present danger for Europe. The former threatens the destruction of Austria, for nothing is clearer than that if Russia once gets established in the Balkan, it is only a question of time how she shall undermine and destroy the polyglot empire. This, *per se*, would not cause so great grief in the Western world were it to stop there; but when the general character of Russian propaganda is considered, and that it has already to a very large extent undermined not merely Herzegovina and Bosnia, but the original Serb provinces of Austria-Hungary, so that it is a boast of the Russian agents that the Serb regiments in the army will go over to the Russians if it comes to a war between the empires—and that this game, once played successfully, is certain to go on till the German and Slav elements are face to face—we come in sight of a conflict which is fraught with greater dangers to European peace than any which is now above the horizon of actual politics. Russia is in effect today an Asiatic country; but with her entry into European politics at Constantinople, or as the mistress of Bulgaria (which amounts in the end to the same thing), she will become an aggressive Power, with elements of invasive strength which no other nation now in Europe possesses. The slow and certain destruction of Austria would be only the prelude to a secular struggle between the German and Slavic races, the issue of which can be only conjectured. It was the perception of this which made Austria persist in the Germanizing policy of the past half century, and the incapacity to realize it which led the Hungarians under Kossuth to play into the hands of Russia by opposing, in their blind egoism, the unification of Austria. It is the same foresight which makes Germany and Austria-Hungary allies against any advance of Russia westward, and which will always prevent any pact between Germany and Russia to the injury of Austria. This is the necessity of the situation. The sound and traditional policy of England which seconds this policy, has no direct relation to the triple alliance, and I need only allude to it as an element in the position which rather confirms the idea that the alliance is really defensive. The Austro-German alliance is a permanent institution.

The French *revanche* is a menace which is serious only as it can ally with it some other element of conflict, *e. g.*, Russia. The nation was foolish enough to provoke a war unprepared, and paid for it by the loss of two provinces, the recovery of which justifies it, in its own eyes, in keeping Europe in a state of perpetual alarm and financial depletion, and, if it is attempted by force of arms, will cost France more lives than there are inhabitants in the two provinces. Every schoolboy in America must know by this time that France will declare war on the first convenient opportunity, and attack Germany with a fury such as she has never shown in any previous war. Frenchmen are rather proud of this determination. But for this the Eastern danger might be met with comparative ease, and perhaps kept back till the Balkan States were organized for their self-defence, and effectively. It is the fact that the two dangers will break on Central Europe at the same moment, that constitutes the peculiar nature of the present impending crisis. The only hope of averting the conflict lies in the possibility of drawing into the central alliance enough of the Powers interested in peace more than in any possible gains by war, to make the confederation clearly master of the situation. This is the interest which the central Powers have in drawing Italy into the alliance, and this addition has no doubt made France less confident of victory, and retarded the outbreak of hostilities for which the French believe they were ready last year; but there is still another weight in the scale of peace in the well-founded conviction that the power of England would be thrown in against the party that began hostilities.

It is, however, against Italy that the French journals launch their deadliest shafts, because Italy is the make-weight which gives a preponderant force to the central alliance, and prevents France from attacking Germany. It is a fact well known in official circles, though denied with derision by the French journals, that two years ago France had planned an attack on Italy, hoping to cripple her effectually and compel her to capitulate before Germany could force the line of frontier defence and bring her full strength to bear on France, when it was believed that the French army would be more than a match for the German. The project was blocked by the English naval demonstration at Genoa. Nevertheless, the book, 'Rome et Berlin,' which was no doubt intended to cheer the hearts of the French with its hopeful prophecies of victory all along the line, and which was so arranged as to appear a few days after the declaration of war, was still brought out, and showed from its elaborate and official studies of the field of operations, especially the Italian coast and defences, how completely the plans had been studied out, and how great the danger to Italy would have been had no *deus ex machina* come in with his *quos ego*. I have no doubt that, so far as this part of the field of operations was concerned, the campaign would have succeeded. The conception of the plan was masterly, and the knowledge of the condition of the defences of Spezzia and the communications between the capital and the decisive field of operations in the North as well as of the defences of Rome, showed that the elements of the book were drawn from official sources, while the author was known to be a retired officer of rank. Of course, having failed, the project is denied, but I have sufficient information from the highest official sources to leave no doubt of its reality.

But this was the effect, not the cause, of the triple alliance, *i. e.*, of the entry of Italy into the league of the central Powers. The cause lies further back, and began in the occupation of Tunis. The struggle for influence in that beylik had been going on for some time, and the apprehensions of the consequences to Italy of the establishment of the naval power of France at a point so near to Sicily that it turned all the defences of the kingdom on the south, had so pressed on the minds of the Italian statesmen that there is no doubt that the Italian occupation would have preceded that of France if the latter had been anticipated. Cairoli, the Prime Minister of the day, was a Francophile, and the Italian Government was content to leave the Tunisian question in abeyance to avoid all difficulties with France. Cairoli asked and received assurances that the French Government had no intention of occupying, and definite promises that it would not occupy, Tunis; and only the day before the occupation was ordered, the Marquis de Noailles and Gambetta both declared that the French Government had no such intention, though the preparations must then have been far advanced. Cairoli resigned and Noailles was recalled, but the bold defiance of good faith and the distinct menace to the security of Italy led the Ministry succeeding that of Cairoli to look about for friends elsewhere than in France. But even before this, Italy had had very good evidence that France, under the Empire, was no friend of Italian unity. When France in her conflict with Germany cast about for help, she naturally applied to Austria and Italy. A very different triple alliance was then possible, but only on the condition that France abandoned the Pope and consented to the occupation of Rome, and this the Emperor refused. When the Empress, become Regent, called on the King of Italy to come to the help of the falling dynasty, Victor Emmanuel replied that he would move only on the same terms, which again was refused. But this was under the Empire, and the public opinion of Italy, generally highly friendly to France, as in fact it would be now if permitted, hoped from the republic better things.

The occupation of Tunis convinced the statesmen of Italy that France was unchanged, and there came a general apprehension that she would on a convenient opportunity insist on the observance of a treaty of old date by which Victor Emmanuel bound himself to respect the position of the Pope, and so maintain what was always known to be a point in the policy of France, the practical protectorate of the temporal power by France. Tunis gone and Rome and Tripoli threatened, all faith in French engagements and good-will lost, Italy turned to Germany and made the overtures which led to her admission to the triple alliance. Whose the fault? The tirades of the French press and the hostility of the French tariffs have one object—that of inducing Italy to withdraw from the triple alliance; and why? Every Frenchman, when he has a moment of frankness, admits that it is because it would leave France free to attack Germany. It is difficult for us who are in the midst of the rancor and wrangle growing out of the position to believe that there is a Frenchman who does not in his serious moments recognize the absolutely defensive character of the triple alliance.

I am a large reader of the daily press of Italy and in an exceptionally good position to know the official feeling. I have known the last three ministers of foreign affairs, and no foreign correspondent has better opportunities than mine to know the mind of Signor Crispi, and I have not the slightest hesitation in say-

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ing that in no part of the kingdom and in no class of Italians is there any hostility to France, even after the intolerable insults of the French press and the official animosities of the French Government. I see continually Frenchmen in Rome and other parts of the country, and I do not believe one can be found who can complain of rudeness on the part of individual or official. On the contrary, they are invariably treated with a consideration they do not always deserve, and which probably surprises them, so that they put it down to Italian servility and the desire to placate Gallic indignation, while it is in fact only the Italian innate courtesy, that habitual politeness in which the average Italian surpasses the people of every other race. Reading the French papers, one would think that a furious polemic was going on between the two nations, but, excepting occasional replies to unusually abusive articles, one never sees any notice taken of it here. Certainly nobody here is much disturbed by it.

So far from contemplating any attack on France, Italy is very far yet from being prepared for a purely defensive campaign, and the fixed belief that the triple alliance is sufficient to avert war is so potent that all the pressure of Germany to get the army into condition for entering into one has not yet produced the desired result. Italy is far from ready for war, and, but for the English determination that she should not be the victim of an unprovoked aggression by sea, hostilities would probably have long ago begun. The consciousness that as long as the Conservatives in England are in power, and, perhaps, even if the Liberals come in, England will take part in the fray against the Power that disturbs the peace, makes it morally certain that neither Germany nor Italy can afford to take the initiative. If, indeed, England were frankly to accede to the triple alliance, and then to induce, as she alone could, the minor Powers, Holland, Belgium, Denmark, and Scandinavia, to enter it, a partial disarmament would probably at once take place, because the attack on such a combination would be hopeless.

The present policy of France is to exhaust the finances of the triple alliance by the necessity of constantly increasing its armaments to keep pace with hers; and, trusting to her greater wealth to hold out longest, she goes on increasing her army and spending for new guns. The consequences of her success in the game which she is playing would be such that the contemplation of them ought to deprive her of the sympathy of the entire civilized world, for they mean the extension of Siberia over eastern Europe, and the loss of all its independence by western ; interminable wars till Russia and France meet, and then, perhaps, a mortal struggle between the Republic and the Cossack. Meanwhile it becomes doubtful if the Powers who favor peace will not be driven to finish with the ruinous condition of affairs by compelling France to disarm or fight. This probably would have taken place the autumn that the Emperor of Germany was here had Italy been prepared; but as Italy had never taken the danger of war seriously to heart, and was most unprepared for it, nothing came of it. W. J. S.

Correspondence.

GOV. CAMPBELL AND THE OHIO LEGISLATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your readers outside of Ohio have doubtless not forgotten the revolution against Gov. Foraker which resulted, a year ago, in the election of a Democratic Governor and Legislature. It will be remembered, also, that home rule for Ohio cities was the most strongly emphasized plank of the Democratic platform, and that the Legislature elected upon that plank entered at once upon a crusade of the most vicious prostitution of city government to partisan and personal ends which the State has ever seen. In all the so-called "Ripper Bills" passed or proposed, it is putting it mildly to say that the welfare of the cities affected was left absolutely out of the calculations. A few Democratic members had the manliness to protest, but the caucus decree was sufficient to carry the point of the spoilsmen. It was well known that this brazen violation of official trust was not sanctioned by the Governor, but the unfortunate absence of the veto power stood in the way of effectual resistance.

Among the many "Bills for Turning Public Office to Private Advantage" was that creating the Board of Public Improvements of Cincinnati, throwing upon the Governor the responsibility of appointment and denying him the protection of the power of removal. There is no reason to doubt that the men chosen for this Board were appointed with a sincere belief in their honesty and ability; but it was soon evident that this confidence was sadly misplaced, and not less evident to Gov. Campbell than to any one else. The complete loss of public confidence in the Board, even though the general suspicion of moral obliquity might be wrong, was an all-sufficient reason for its immediate removal; but its creators had fortified against such a contingency in advance by providing a method of removal too tedious and uncertain to offer any encouragement. After unsuccessful efforts to induce certain members to resign, Gov. Campbell had the courage, right in the face of an election, to summon the Legislature in extra session, and ask for the abolition of the Board and the substitution of another constituted more in accordance with the demands of honest government and common sense.

That the demand to condemn and undo the work of a few months previous was unpleasant to the majority goes without saying; and especially so to the Cincinnati members, some of whom were holding lucrative offices under the very Board which they had created. This fact in itself is a sufficient answer to those who professed to have conscientious scruples against "condemning the Board without a hearing." Another, no less sufficient, is the character of the man who rushed to the Board's defence. If any acknowledged representatives of honesty in politics were in the lobby which sought to thwart the Governor's desires, their names have not found their way into the press reports.

For a time it seemed that the efforts of the lobby would succeed, but a second message from the Governor — aided by a reaction against the insult of an adjournment taken while the Governor's secretary was standing before the Speaker with the message in his hand—clarified the atmosphere sufficiently to bring the schemes of the ringsters out in their true light and insure their defeat. This message, while it secured the triumph of the Governor's recommendations, has made him not a few enemies. The advice that the new Board should not be elected in November because the shortness of time would compel nomination by party committees, which "do not enjoy the respect of the people of Cincinnati to a degree sufficient to give public confidence to their nominations," was somewhat unpalatable to the said committees and their friends. The lobby did not relish the statement that nobody in Cincinnati could be brought to the Board's defence "other than those having a direct personal interest in said Board." The Cincinnati members did not like to hear their alleged desire for harmony truthfully characterized as "mere duplicity." Members of the minority party who at one time contemplated opposition to any legislation whatever, were somewhat nettled to be publicly told that they "must, on reflection, feel that their action was unwise and unpatriotic." The advice to "let the handful of schemers who are scuffling in the dirt before you, hoping for some petty personal gain, be overlooked," was rather chafing to the refined sensibilities of certain professional politicians; and the exhortation to "wipe out the Board" has been objected to in some quarters on the ground that it is wanting in elegance of diction, but the vast majority of those fully acquainted with the circumstances will agree that a Shakspere or a Milton could not have adapted the words to the occasion more fitly than did Gov. Campbell.

That the Governor will follow up his advantage in his message to the adjourned session is altogether probable, and if he does so, the prospects for respectable municipal government in Ohio will be brighter than for many years. The people who "love him for the enemies he has made" in this fight are numbered by the thousands, among the best classes of all parties, and an honored leadership in a popular movement to rescue local government from the clutches of the spoilsmen is undoubtedly his if he chooses to go forward. That any other course, unless he shall drop out of public life altogether, will bring certain humiliation, is too evident to need argument. Fair-minded people are willing to believe that he does not desire any other course, and the friends of good government all over the Union should be ready with open approval and assistance as long as his present attitude is maintained.

W. H. Johnson.

MONEY IN ELECTIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It has been a matter of surprise to many of your readers that you have not yet taken the pains to define accurately the present attitude of the Republican party towards Mr. Quay. The assumption of *Puck* that Quay stands for the spirit and ambition of that party, and is its fittest representative, is incorrect. On the contrary, it may safely be said that the Senator from Pennsylvania is regarded with the most cordial detestation by the leaders of his party; and as for the rank and file, those who still believe him to be a calumniated patriot are but few: the majority avoid all reference to him, and would be glad to know that the party had severed its connection with him.

I am inclined to think—and this opinion is based rather on a general knowledge of human nature than upon mere imagination—that many orthodox Republicans, including President Harrison and Speaker Reed, were heartily glad that Mr. Kennedy made his attack on Quay. They rejoiced that the attack was made, and that it was made directly and openly. What the Ohio member said they desired to say, but they dared not. In the recesses of their thoughts, and in the silence of their chambers, they curse Quay as a disgrace to his party. They know, as well as Mr. Kennedy does, that he is a Judas, but they do not say so, because—and this is the key to the

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whole situation—*he carries the bag!* Somewhat more than a year ago Mr. Quay began the collection of a "reserve fund" for the use of the National Committee. This was to be made up by the contribution of $10 annually from each Republican voter able and willing to aid the party to that extent. No secret was made of the plan of this fund, and its collection has been carried on during the past year by agencies directly under Mr. Quay's control—quietly, however, lest questions should be asked concerning its amount and purpose. The usefulness of this fund is shown in the fact, pleasantly noted by Republican journals, that while the Democratic National Committee is greatly hampered by lack of funds, the other Committee is experiencing no such difficulty. Money is the "sinews of war," we are told, and we know it to be the very life-blood of "practical politics." The sources of this life-giving current are with Mr. Quay; is it likely that his favor will be forfeited before election? And after election? Wait and see what the friendship of the Pharisees is worth then. That the Republicans will win the coming election is highly probable, for the plan so successful in 1888 of sending funds to doubtful districts is again at work. A careful canvass of every State has been made, and maps, showing by shading every district, county, and township where the Congressional vote is doubtful, have been drawn for the guidance of the National Committee. The reserve fund, therefore, is being placed where it will do the most good. The result may not be pleasing to honest patriots, but it can hardly be a matter of surprise. But even though the party secure success, and through Mr. Quay's skilful generalship alone, we are convinced that the first move of his fellow-leaders afterwards will be to remove this officer. And they will do this in such a way as to reflect the highest credit upon themselves and upon the party of "high moral ideas," and thus rivet to the party with bands of steel the support of doctors of divinity and Sunday-school leaders.

Mr. Godkin says, in his late article in the *Forum*, that the existence of a large class of people ready to purchase votes is the most significant political fact of the time. It is a fact to whose perilous meaning no honest patriot can close his eyes. It will not do to palliate the present situation by saying that money always has been and always will be used by evil men in elections. While bribery is only a secret and disgraceful resource of the scurvy politician it can do harm, but when it becomes the open and avowed practice of party leaders who, at the same time, claim the name and the affiliations of respectability and piety, then, indeed, is our patriotism rotten to the very core. He who cannot see how this evil has grown in this country during the last ten—yes, even the last four—years must be afflicted with the hopeless blindness of those who *will* not see.

The evil effect of the use of money in elections can never be confined within bounds. It debauches not only those who actually sell and buy the votes, but all otherwise honest citizens who see and condone the crime. It is an offence that can never be confined to one party, for the other party is certain to take it up also, on the plea that the devil can only be fought with fire. It is a burning disgrace to the American name, that the shameless purchase of votes in Indiana and New York in the Presidential election of 1888 was not investigated and condemned by Congress. Why was this not done? Simply because both parties had taken part in the offence, and there were not in either any men honest enough to stand up for righteousness in defiance of party denunciation.

A. C. C.

Chicago, Ill.

UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Doubtless many of your readers, like some of my personal friends, turn away from my letters with a pitying smile, saying: "Our friend works himself into a good deal of excitement, unfortunately to no purpose. He seems unable to see that the real difficulty is not in the mere surface matter of the organization of government, but in universal suffrage. Democracy is proving itself to be, as it always has been, a failure. If you give votes to the mass of the ignorant poor and foreigners, you must expect and will have bad results."

As this goes to the root of the matter, a word on that subject may not be out of season.

(1.) Whether universal suffrage is good or bad, it is upon us, and we cannot help it. Though it is only a hundred years old, the world is marching towards it with rapid strides. In this country there may be imposed some restrictions as to education and length of residence, but no property qualification will ever be enforced unless by military despotism as the result of fierce civil wars. How can the majority be induced to vote away their power? Not one of those who are most bitter as to universal suffrage ever suggests any expedient by which it can be done away with. Their philosophy is and must be to shut their eyes and say, "After us the deluge." Is this the manly view to take of it? It is the way in which their kind regarded the civil war, but the mass of the people refused to see it in that light.

(2.) Is the charge against universal suffrage true? I ask any man to go back to the period thirty years ago, when the black cloud of slavery was about to burst upon us, and when the whole outside world and half of that inside believed that the dissolution of the Union was an accomplished fact. Who was it that refused to accept any such conclusion, that insisted upon the prosecution of the war, raised the men and the money, abolished slavery, and then dismissed the vast army to the arts of peace, leaving the Union stronger than ever? It was the people of the United States, trained by universal suffrage to act together in time of war. No man enjoying the blessings of life in this country to-day has a right to say a word against such a power. Again, if the Government of Great Britain had been, as it was a century ago, in the hands of the upper classes, it would certainly have interfered on behalf of the South. London society and the military and naval services, not to say the aristocracy in general, were eager for it. What saved us from such a disaster? It was the workmen of Lancashire and other parts of the kingdom, who had become a power through, if not a universal, at least a widely extended suffrage, and who, suffering as they were from the privation of cotton, sent up a cry which warned the Government that the nation would not support such action. It would be easy to multiply instances of the beneficent action of a collective public will.

(3.) It is beyond question a fact that in the United States of to-day we do not get the effect of universal suffrage. Does anybody suppose that the things which are done at Washington or in the capitols and the city halls of the different States are really in accordance with the wishes of the people? More and more the management of politics is falling into the hands of unscrupulous rings, the choice of the people being limited to two sets of politicians between whom there is perhaps little to choose. Go through the country, into the abodes of peaceful industry and into the family life of the people, and ask yourself whether the men who swarm in the lobbies are really such as the people would of their own choice select to govern them. Before we condemn the people so unsparingly, is it not worth while to consider whether it is their fault, and whether it is possible for them to do any better with the machinery with which they have to work? And this brings us to the other alternative.

(4.) Organization. For those who sneer at expecting so much from it I have one reply. The most miserable and apparently hopeless period in the history of this country was that of the Confederation which succeeded our war of Independence. To understand that, one needs only to read the accounts of the prostration of business and the utter depression which threatened to make all the sacrifices of the Revolution of no avail. To that state of things came the Federal Constitution, as purely an à priori and conscious piece of organization as ever took place in the world. The effect was like magic. The revival of business and the restoration of credit began that career of prosperity which has made us what we are to-day. No product of machinery was ever more directly the effect of a cause.

Fortunately no such radical changes are now needed as were made then; but what work does need to be done is precisely of the same kind. My theories may be defective or erroneous in character, but of one thing I am certain, that they are in the right direction.

G. B.

Boston, October 25, 1890.

INVERSIONS OF TEMPERATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your remarks and inquiry concerning nocturnal inversions of temperature in the *Nation* of September 25, escaped my attention until to-day. A striking example of this inversion came under my observation in September, 1878. While engaged in survey work in the Sierras of northern California (Plumas County), for the purpose of being early at the top of a mountain I spent the night far up the side, about two thousand feet above my party in the valley, though within sight. A short time before sunrise the next morning, the difference of temperature between the two stations was 7°F., the higher being the warmer. With smaller differences of altitude in those regions I have frequently noted similar inversions. Along the sides of a cultivated valley in Sierra County I saw flourishing gardens, while nearer the axis line of the valley, not over five miles away and 200 feet lower, the gardens were in many respects failures. A similar difference in orchards located at different points along the same stream was noticed.

This difference of vegetation is not, however, due solely to difference of atmospheric temperature. A difference of a few feet in altitude there frequently made the difference between a dry camp and one mantled in dew or frost. I have noticed in many localities that sheep and other animals learn to avoid these conditions, and at night generally occupy higher ground, as the smaller knolls in a valley.

I have never known a case of inversion that could not, I think, be satisfactorily explained by considering the motion and lack of moisture of the upper atmosphere in connection with the moisture and lack of motion in the lower.

A statement from you as to where the essay

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of Mr. Elliot, referred to in No. 1317 of the *Nation*, was printed would be appreciated.

S. E. TILLMAN.

WEST POINT, N. Y., October 21, 1890.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT Co.'s holiday announcements include 'A Mosaic,' a set of photogravures from pictures never before published, furnished by the Artists' Fund Society of Philadelphia, with text; an illustrated edition of Buchanan Read's poem, "Sheridan's Ride"; and 'Tisáyac of the Yosemite,' an illustrated poem by M. B. M. Toland.

The Dunlap Society will issue at once to its members Mr. William Winter's biography of the late John Gilbert, illustrated with a portrait of the comedian as *Sir Peter Teazle*. The final publication of the Dunlap Society for this year will be a volume of 'Occasional Addresses,' edited by Mr. Laurence Hutton and Mr. William Carey, and to contain the chief of the many American poems written to be spoken at benefits and anniversaries.

Mr. J. R. Tuten, the compiler of 'The Bibliography of Wordsworth,' has prepared 'The Wordsworth Dictionary of Persons and Places,' which will be published in December by Frank Murray, Moray House, Derby, England. The large-paper copies will be uniform with Knight's library edition of Wordsworth. The work is to contain first an index of all the persons named or described in Wordsworth's poems; second, an index of all the places mentioned or described; thirdly, a collection of the familiar quotations from Wordsworth; and fourthly, a chronological list of the best of Wordsworth's poems.

'Newburgh,' historical and descriptive, is the title of a work about to be undertaken by Messrs. Ritchie & Hull, proprietors of the *Journal* in that city on the Hudson. It will be copiously illustrated, and will make a quarto volume.

The *Forest and Stream* Publishing Company of New York will issue at once the first number of a quarterly publication entitled *The Book of the Game Laws*, compiled by the editor of *Forest and Stream*, and containing all the laws of the United States and Canada relating to game and fish.

What Houghton, Mifflin & Co. attempted in the case of the 'Marble Faun'—to emphasize the local color by means of photographic views of places, buildings, statuary, etc., in a sumptuous edition—has been imitated by another Boston firm in the case of 'Romola' (Estes & Lauriat). Its two volumes are less remarkable for typographical beauty—at least, we cannot praise the press-work—than for the numerous and well-chosen illustrations drawn from the historic and artistic wealth of Florence. There are sixty of these in various tints, and they undeniably enhance the value of this edition for the untravelled, or, for that matter, for the travelled also. Two modern etchings, by William Unger, of Macchiavelli and Savonarola, are among the reproductions. The delicate binding of white and gold, relieved with color on the sides, is shielded by a scarlet cover, and a scarlet box encases the whole.

A certain external parallel to the foregoing is afforded by the two-volume edition of 'Jane Eyre' got up by T. Y. Crowell & Co. Here the text is more open and legible, but the illustrations are designs on wood by artists not named, and seemingly of transatlantic origin. They are somewhat heterogeneous, and would not of themselves justify the publishers' prediction that their edition is "as perfect as will ever be produced."

Better founded is the same publishers' assertion that their reissue of 'Tom Brown's School Days,' in one volume, is "the best that has ever been offered to the American public." Typographically it resembles the 'Jane Eyre,' and the illustrations, clearly of English origin, are superior. The binding is in a sober green cloth.

We have spoken very recently of the substance of Camille Flammarion's astronomic fantasy, 'Urania,' and need only speak now to the externals of the handsome edition just put forth by Estes & Lauriat. Large type, generously spaced, produces a volume of some 300 pages, interspersed with vignettes from tone-drawings in the French fashion. Some of these are excellent, and the major part are decorative at least. The binding is a wine-colored cloth, freely gilt.

A gulf indeed separates Darley's illustrations to Cooper from Frederic Remington's sepia drawings which give distinction to Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s new setting of 'The Song of Hiawatha.' Mr. Remington has notoriously made close studies from nature of our Western Indians, and can depict their physiognomy with an almost scientific exactitude. He has also gone into their costumes, implements, and the like, and has amassed a small museum of pen-drawings of pipes, snowshoes, targets, jars, hammers, quivers, spears, belts, arrows, head-ornaments, etc., which are scattered up and down the margin of the text in a novel way. The full-page plates are realistic, but beauty and sentiment not seldom assert themselves, and the general effect is undeniably pleasing. The other appointments of this edition are of the first order; the cover a russet leather or leatherette, in revival of an older style. Taken altogether, the holiday ideal has been skilfully met by the publishers.

They have not stopped here, for they launch anew Lowell's 'Vision of Sir Launfal,' with photogravures from designs by E. H. Garrett, and a precious copy of a crayon portrait of the poet by William Page, made in 1842. Mr. Garrett's pencil we like best when employed in landscape, but his figure pieces are passable, and he has helped to beautify the little volume.

Another of Page's portraits, dated 1843, and in oil, has been etched for the first volume of the Poems of James Russell Lowell, in the complete Writings now in course of publication by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The face has an Elizabethan aspect, in keeping with the tastes and powers of the author of 'Conversations on Some of the Old Poets.' The second volume is wholly given up to the 'Biglow Papers.' The first ends with the rhymed anti-slavery "Letter from Boston," which Mr. Lowell has hitherto refrained from adopting in his own anthology, but which all his admirers must agree in thinking worthy of its present place. It is not only an honorable chapter in Mr. Lowell's historic development, but an inimitable portrait gallery, in which his Hudibrastic humor jostles high poetic imagery and the acutest characterization. Mr. Lowell has added a few explanatory notes to this Letter, and he might have quoted apologetically from the MS., which has been preserved, that it was written "in steamboat haste." If there is any living poet capable of such a *tour de force*, we do not know his name.

The promised popular reprint of the late Eugene Schuyler's 'Peter the Great' (Charles Scribner's Sons) is, luxury apart, in all respects as desirable as the original. The paper has been cheapened; but that the buyer (in these days of the apotheosis of Dearness) may not feel cheapened himself by the lowered price, the binding has a look of costly elegance, without being a sham either. In a word, the new edition would adorn any library. One defect we may fairly point out: the not long list of errata should have been abolished by means of alterations in the plates. Most of them could easily have been thus disposed of.

'Our Great Actors: Portraits of Celebrated Actors in their Most Celebrated Rôles' is the title of a portfolio of sketches in water-color by Mr. Charles S. Abbé, reproduced by the Armstrong Company and published by Estes & Lauriat. The great actors chosen by the artist are Messrs. Booth, Irving, Jefferson, Lawrence Barrett, Coquelin, and Salvini. The picture of Mr. Booth as *Richelieu* and that of Mr. Irving as *Mephistopheles* are disappointing. The latter, indeed, is ludicrously inadequate. But the four other drawings are of better quality, that of Mr. Jefferson as *Bob Acres* fair only, while the portrait of M. Coquelin as *Mascarille* is excellent—emphatically the best of the half-dozen. As likenesses, the pictures of Sig. Salvini as *Macbeth* (certainly not his "most celebrated rôle") and of Mr. Lawrence Barrett as *Lanciotto* (in "Francesca da Rimini") are satisfactory.

The eighth and concluding volume of the 'Henry Irving Shakespeare' (Scribner, Welford & Co.) contains in the Introduction to "Hamlet" the last work of its late editor, Mr. Frank A. Marshall, who unfortunately did not live to complete the undertaking to which he had given so much labor. Mr. Arthur Symons furnishes the notes to this play, and also the entire commentary on "King Henry VIII.," no part of which seems to him to be by Shakspere. "Pericles" is cared for by Mr. Round, and the poems and sonnets by Mr. Verity. An excellent Index to the notes of the entire edition is at the end. Prof. Dowden contributes the Life of Shakspere, which is here introduced, somewhat out of place, in the last volume, and is a compact and reasonable summary of the facts of his biography, the order and general character of the plays so far as they illustrate the dramatist's career, and the history of his fame. Mr. Henry Irving also writes a short preface, in which he pays a tribute to the memory of his associate. The edition in its successive issues has well sustained the promise of interest and value made by its early volumes, and must take good rank as a popular edition distinguished by careful scholarship, and especially rich in its notes on the history of the plays upon the stage. The cuts have been of various degrees of excellence, but the design in them has been always markedly dramatic in feeling. The Chandos portrait has been chosen for the frontispiece in the last volume. Altogether, the plan of the edition was well conceived and has been admirably executed.

A useful aid to the correct dates of English literature has been compiled by Mr. Frederick Ryland in his 'Chronological Outlines of English Literature' (Macmillan). It consists of two parts. The first is a continuous chronological table in parallel columns, the first containing the date, the others in order the works published, biographical, foreign-literary and historical events of the same year—and last stands a column of annotations and remarks. The second part is an alphabetical list of authors, with their works and the dates of publication under each name. The author remarks upon the inaccuracy of Allibone and other leading works of reference, and has endeavored to correct their errors by consulting the British Museum Catalogue and special bibliographies. The volume makes 350 pages, is well bound

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and printed, and does not attempt to give too much.

Mr. H. S. Salt has collected and edited the 'Anti-Slavery and Reform Papers' of Thoreau (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.), and prefixed to them an appreciative notice of their author, apparently with the design of showing that he was less disconnected with the social interests of his fellow-men than is commonly represented. He asserts that Thoreau was an anarchist in principle, but the name can hardly be applied to him with fairness now, although it is easy to quote passages to show that the hermit of Walden believed in "no government" as an ideal state. It is of much more use to bring forward the papers upon John Brown which Thoreau wrote and made public at the time of Brown's execution, since they prove the vigor of his hatred of slavery and his own moral courage and readiness to do what he could to effect reform by the expression of his opinions. The two papers upon this subject are excellent in style and matter, well pointed with epigram, and contain some of Thoreau's most characteristic sayings. The other three papers in the volume, upon "Civil Disobedience," "Paradise (to be) Regained," and "Life without Principle," are much less striking, though the first is a remarkable illustration of the mood of mind and reasoning of those who, in the anti-slavery agitation, threw off their civil allegiance, and contains besides the graphic account of Thoreau's night in prison when arrested for refusing to pay his tax. The little book well fulfils its aim of setting Thoreau forth, apart from nature, in his social or anti-social relations, and is also valuable for its illustration of the effect of John Brown's death at the time upon a certain class at the North.

The educational discussions and experiments in London occasionally bring us a volume of much interest to teachers, but we remember none more fresh or stimulating than a thin book entitled 'Elementary Schools, How to Increase their Utility,' which we have received from Percival & Co., London. It consists of six lectures delivered to the managers of the London Board Schools in 1889–1890. The titles are Science-Teaching, Music, Physical Culture and Recreation, Hand-and-Eye Training, Evenings of Amusement and Mechanics; and the lecturers were all persons of special culture in the particular subjects treated. The last lecture contains a scheme, with experiments, for a whole course in mechanics, conceived in a most intelligent way, and the lectures upon physique and music are both particularly noticeable. The whole course exhibits a tendency towards development in the direction of manual training (but not technical trade-instruction for a particular practical end), and also in the direction of gymnastics and easy sports rather than athletics. In the lecture upon evening amusements we have a good account of how these evenings were started as an experiment a short time ago, of their success, and of the methods to be employed. The experience is of value for all who are engaged in providing evening amusement for the young in our cities, in friendly clubs and like organizations. Mr. Bonsfield, who holds the leading official position among the managers of the London Board Schools, furnishes an excellent general preface. The volume deserves to be consulted by progressive teachers and school boards.

Yet another 'Popular Handbook' of literature, under the inapt title, 'Makers of Modern English' (Whittaker), is put forth by W. J. Dawson, upon the poets of this century. The earlier chapters cover a well-worked field without anything specially new or striking in their survey, but the greater part of the volume is devoted to Wordsworth, Tennyson, and Browning. The essay upon Tennyson is noticeable for its breadth and system, and is an excellent study of the obvious faults and virtues of the Laureate; that upon Browning is less satisfactory. Rossetti, Swinburne, and William Morris are treated of at the end—a sign of the progress of the century and of the unsettled conclusion of criticism upon these writers, who, though later than Tennyson, who still lives, have nevertheless done that part of their work by which they are almost certain to be judged. Mr. Dawson writes with full information, and has a firm grasp, but his criticism falls below its subject. It is book-reviewing on an extended scale.

'Tales and Legends from the Land of the Tsar,' translated from the Russian by Edith M. S. Hodgetts (New York: Charles E. Merrill & Co.), is a spirited translation of thirty-eight Russian fairy tales, and it will be welcomed by people who are in search of a new holiday book for children as well as by the students of folk-lore. An occasional lapse in grammar and use of slang mars the style, without adding to the force or naturalness of the rendering, as they were obviously intended to do. Some of the tales will be recognized as having already made their appearance in other volumes. "Vaselesa, the Beautiful" is an old acquaintance, while "Elie Muromitch" and "The Last of the Russian Warriors" are both to be found in Miss Hapgood's 'Epic Songs of Russia,' where the English version preserves the spirit of the original more closely than in the present translation.

Count Tolstoi's 'Gospel Stories' is a book to be avoided by all persons who possess the volume issued in 1887 by the same publishers (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), under the title of 'Ivan Ilyitch, and Other Stories.' The translator's Introductory Note implies that these stories are now issued in book form for the first time. As a matter of fact, they form the "other stories" in the volume above referred to. We gave them due notice at the time. Of this new issue there is nothing to be said, except that the publisher has not taken advantage of the opportunity to correct a single one of the numerous blemishes which we then pointed out, and that the pseudo-English is religiously preserved. The publishing of old books as new, with a fresh title and no hint of the antiquity of the contents, is not to be commended. The stories are to be found in the twelfth volume of Count Tolstoi's 'Collected Works.'

We read in an English paper of the auction sale at Sotheby's in London, next month, of a complete collection of Dickens's works, made by Mr. J. Hampden English, of Walton. The first editions it contains, with the serials in their original wrappers, are likely to excite a keen competition.

Students of the development of jurisprudence should possess themselves of Dr. Camillo Henner's 'Beiträge zur Organisation und Competenz der päpstlichen Ketzergerichte,' just issued by Duncker & Humblot of Leipzig. Dr. Henner is a teacher of law in the Karl-Ferdinands University of Prague, who treats the subject of the Inquisition in a purely scientific spirit, as a matter of passionless investigation. With unwearied assiduity he has assembled all accessible information, from old as well as new sources, has analyzed it, and presents the result in a condensed and methodical shape, with ample citation of authorities. So much of late years has been added to our store of documentary evidence respecting the procedure of the Holy Office in the Middle Ages, that a clear and well-arranged summary of existing knowledge, in which widely scattered facts are brought together and arranged for mutual elucidation, is a service of no little value. The work is not, of course, intended for the general reader, but the special student will prize highly its valuable assistance.

A fourth edition of Flügel's English-German and German-English Dictionary is in the press of Georg Westermann, Brunswick (New York: B. Westermann & Co.). It is sixty years since J. G. Flügel founded this work to which so many other rival enterprises have been indebted—as English lexicographers to Johnson, and as the new editor, Dr. Felix Flügel, to Todd, by his own account in the prospectus. Etymology is disregarded for the English portion, and pronunciation suggested only by a few diacritical marks, referring to a running key, as in our English dictionaries. The great feature of the work is the literary examples, with exact reference to volume and page of the work cited; and there is a special index to the authors, with titles of their works and date of issue. The dictionary will be published in twelve parts, appearing every two months. The typography will be condensed but clear.

The path of the independent critic has just been proved to be a thorny one in Spain in the person of Leopoldo Alas. That member of the group of distinguished collaborators who have given the new magazine, *España Moderna*, such deserved fame, had prepared two articles for its columns, one on the poetry of Campoamor, the other on the novels of Emilia Pardo Bazán. The editor insisted that the latter should be first published, and also that it be revised so as to make it more acceptable to the authoress than it promised to be. The critic resented both these demands, withdrew his contributions, and has now printed them in one of his series of 'Literary Tracts.' Naturally his fearless and vigorous writing can be looked for no more in the pages subject to such an editorial dictatorship.

We have received the ninth edition of the Boston Public Library's 'Handbook for Readers,' edited by Mr. James L. Whitney. While calculated for the institution which puts it forth, it is, of course, scarcely less useful for smaller libraries, for if many of the "literary guides" here enumerated at such length on a vast variety of topics are wanting in these humbler collections, it is of no little service to have the deficiencies pointed out, while the student can note the guide and perhaps consult it elsewhere. In fact, part of the bibliographical references for the Boston Library's own readers are to the British Museum's catalogue of printed books, so far as published. Of universal interest, again, is the list of indexes of periodicals, filling nearly forty-seven pages, and it was a happy thought to reprint the names of the periodicals indexed in Poole's Index. There is also a select list of encyclopædias. The regulations of the Library are prefixed to the bibliographical contents, and these are followed by an account of the special libraries included in the Boston Public, and of its works of art, a chronology of the Library from Vattemare's time down, and statistics of growth up to the present half million volumes. This Handbook has been most scrupulously prepared and printed.

We are glad to hear that the success of the Slater Memorial Museum in attracting and interesting the people of Norwich and vicinity continues to an extent far beyond the most sanguine expectations of those who were interested in its foundation. Last spring Mr.

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Slater placed on exhibition there his collection of pictures, principally of the Barbizon school, and in the three weeks that the exhibition remained open it was visited by more than 3,000 people. Word now comes that a school of drawing has been established in connection with the Museum, which opens with twenty-two in the day classes and seventy-five in the evening classes. Surely no greater proof of the need of such institutions in our smaller communities could be asked for.

—Another proof, if proof be needed, of the rapid way in which our country is coming to the front in intellectual matters, is the *International Journal of Ethics*, of which the first number has just been published in Philadelphia. The *Ethical Record*, of which it is a development, was published by the Societies for Ethical Culture, and suffered consequently from the appearance of being a sectarian organ. The present periodical is to be a review of the most catholic sort; and since there exists nowhere to-day, we believe, a review especially devoted to ethical questions, it is to be hoped that it may prove as indispensable to students of morals everywhere as *Mind*, for example, is to students of philosophy. Mr. S. Burns Weston, as chief editor, is backed by a strong international committee, in which Profs. Felix Adler and Josiah Royce represent the United States. The list of future contributors is imposing, embracing some of the first names in England, Germany, and America, and the present number contains articles by Messrs. Henry Sidgwick, Adler, Höffding, J. B. Clark, B. Bosanquet, Royce, and Salter, with half-a-dozen reviews by the indefatigable G. von Gizycki. The *Journal* will appear quarterly. Taking this first number as a good expression of the contemporary spirit in ethics, what strikes one most in it is the extraordinary absence from it of the old-fashioned rigidity and formalism. The intuitionist of to-day when it comes to saying what should be done in the concrete, becomes as pliant as a utilitarian, and refers as much as he to experiment. The objective notion of "the Good of the Whole," with the individual as its organ, working in the light of his own best talent, whenever that may be, has, in fact, with contemporary intuitionists, well-nigh come to supersede the subjective one of a cut-and-dried bundle of fixed duties, to God, to our fellows, and to ourselves, respectively, imposed from above on the individual, and having the possible sinuosities of his behavior under them as the reason for their being. Mr. Bosanquet would be classed among "intuitionists," yet he says as hard things as any one we can remember, in his article upon the "Communication of Moral Ideas," against the notion that there are any fixed duties binding on individuals irrespective of condition and circumstance. Prof. Höffding, although not an intuitionist, says the same thing in a much less telling way. And Prof. Adler, in his fine address on the "Freedom of Ethical Fellowship," shows how small is the importance of systematic ethical theory even for systematically organized practical work of an ethical kind. The chaotic vagueness of all this would make an old-fashioned moral philosopher rub his eyes. And it must be confessed that *something* is gone, in the loss of all the old clean-cut abstract formulas, even though we may have gained in place of them a more concrete, rich, and living way of looking at the truth. Prof. Sidgwick, in his article on "The Ethics of Strife," shows that the only great hope for society is in the increase in the individual citizen's sense of *justice*, even in questions where his own class and country may be arrayed on one side. Prof. Clark, in "The Ethics of Land Tenure," argues against nationalization; Prof. Royce cuts up remorselessly Dr. Abbot's book on the 'Way Out of Agnosticism'; and Mr. Salter insists on the irreducible distinction in kind between ethical and scientific propositions. Altogether this first number of the *International Journal* is of first-rate quality, and the magazine will be an assured success if it does not fall below the standard thus set.

—*Harper's* for November devotes a large portion of its space to articles of travel. Southern California, Chili, Japan, and Switzerland are the subjects, and of these the first two are more than usually full in description and information. Mr. Warner always sees the best phases of the countries through which he travels; and in this case of "Our Italy," as he calls the lower Pacific counties, he has a topic which arouses all his enthusiasm, whether for beauty of landscape, salubrity of climate, or future material prosperity. The more valuable part of his article consists of its meteorological and fruit-culture sections. Mr. Theodore Child makes an exhaustive study of the outward aspects of the streets of Santiago and Valparaiso, which are portrayed with evident truth, and none of that flattery of local pride which commonly distorts such accounts as this; and he touches rapidly, but with instruction, upon the character of the people, the personality of the President, and the nature of the political struggle between him and the legislative branch, the school provision, the rising vogue of the English language, and the omnipresent influence of English capital, besides many other minor matters. The article is well conceived, is many-sided, and gives a very excellent sketch of the whole range of things Chilian. Another paper, interesting from its picturesqueness, is upon the local festival of the "Meistertrunk" celebrated at Rothenburg, in which the reader finds a curious instance of the mediæval popular-play occurring in our own times. The only other considerable article is Prof. Sloan's account of Princeton, which he describes as occupying a middle place, in its ideal of education, between Harvard and Yale. He dwells particularly on the large scientific requirements in the curriculum, on the benefits of the literary societies, on the nature of the athletic exercises, the advantages of the neighborhood of the School of Science, the prospects of the Law School in contemplation, the theological department, and the fertility of the college in public men. There is a lack of detail and definition, however, as to the character of the education actually acquired.

—The *Century* opens with the first instalment of a journey through Tibet, which must be of great and increasing interest as an account of an unknown land, but in the present number the traveller, Mr. Rockhill, arrives only at its border. The remainder of the number is rich in attractive articles, of which we can only name those upon Lincoln's personal habits, the first California emigrant-train, Andersonville, and the printing of the *Century*, while calling special attention to Mr. Shaw's description of the history and present state of the municipal government of London, and to Mr. Brownell's exceptional criticism of the French sculptors, Rodin and Dalou. The experience of London in working out its still incomplete municipal system affords perhaps the most valuable and certainly the most interesting study in the government of modern cities, and the author has dealt with his difficult subject with remarkable clearness and comprehension. He reviews the history of the guilds of the city, shows in what way they have yielded to reform sentiment, and prophesies the speedy extinction of this venerable and powerful governing body and the transference of its great wealth to the use of the people as public trusts. He states that the principle of supreme control by a directly elected body is admitted, and he forecasts the lines on which it will be developed through the County Council, and takes occasion to contrast this system with the idea of American reformers who would concentrate power in the Mayor, much to our disadvantage. He directs attention to the suffrage scheme, which admits women to the franchise, and which does not require the nominee to be a resident of the ward. He touches also upon the great question of leaseholds, taxes on rental-values, the housing of the poor, the public schools, etc.; in fact, the paper is full of the modern movement of society, and has many practical bearings upon our own problems. Mr. Brownell's paper, which deals more particularly with Rodin, is remarkable for the clearness of its critical perceptions and the justice of its temperate decisions on the ever-vexed questions, continually arising, between academic canons and original genius, between art and nature, formal style and vital expression; and in its allusions to the art of the Renaissance and of Greece it is as felicitous as in its direct criticism. In method and manner, as well as in intelligence, it takes the first critical rank.

—*Scribner's* makes interesting announcements of its prospective articles, of which the most important are papers on Japan by Sir Edwin Arnold, on India by Prof. Bryce, on the Great Streets of the World, and on Ocean Steamships, to which Mr. Stevenson's new romance, 'The Wreckers,' is to be added. In the present issue, only Prof. Shaler's concluding paper on the physical prospects of the nation need be noted. He surveys briefly the trans-Mississippi country, and gives the first place in progress to the Oregonian district, and then proceeds to general conclusions, to the effect that there has been no deterioration of the race due to its settlement in America, but rather a slight improvement, especially in recuperative power, as shown by the records of wounds in the civil war, and in longevity as shown by the life-insurance reports. The backwardness of the French Canadian element in intellectual life he is inclined to ascribe to the difference in language and to the lack of education, and he regards it as transitory. The great problem of the future of the African race is touched upon only to bring out its import to the Southern States, to which he thinks the negroes will be confined, except as there may be sufficient northward emigration to repair losses in the black population of the cities, which would otherwise, he thinks, tend to extinction. He prophesies, also, the increase of the mine-workers until in the West they will equal or exceed the surface-tillers, and in general the growth of heredity of occupation everywhere, resulting in ancestral types in the population. The three articles, taken together, are an extremely suggestive series; and after allowance is made for the singleness of the point of view, they offer valuable results for reflection.

—The *Atlantic* has a long list of topics well distributed. Mr. John Jay Chapman's trial translation of the fourth canto of the 'Inferno' is the most novel. He has attempted to render it in *terza rima*, and has made a notable *tour de force* in a measure not much employed in English. The question whether English *terza*

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rima represents the same measure in Italian still remains; and when everything has been conceded to the patience, ingenuity, and good taste of the translator, there is much room for doubt. English *terza rima* tends to a very rapid flow, and has the character of a chant. Shelley's use of it exhibits these traits very markedly, and he has employed it with the strongest touch. In Mr. Chapman's hands one cannot help noticing the presence of the great defect to which it is exposed, namely, the tendency to light endings, which weaken the verse often to the point of debilitation. This slight final accentuation reacts on the body of the line also, and in this way the translator gives an impression of effectation, since his line recalls too directly the peculiar movement of the Rossetti type of verse which is due to this cause. Finally, such a forced rhyme as *Julia* with *saw* and *awe*, though cleverly veiled, is intolerable, and when single fine lines are literally and simply rendered, the neighboring lines are forced to bend and yield to the necessities of the metre almost constantly. There is, too, not a little amplification of the original. The effect, therefore, so far as it is to be taken as an illustration of the powers of English *terza rima* to reproduce Dante's measure, cannot be regarded as settling the point favorably, but in itself the translation is an interesting technical experiment in English verse and highly creditable to the writer. In the remainder of the number we find an account of the demolition of the legend of William Tell, a scholarly notice of Robert Morris's services to the Revolution, an account of the state of affairs in the Federal courts which occasions the increasing delay of justice, and several other papers, principally of an historical nature.

—The Paris *Figaro* revives the memory of an incident, now twenty-four years old, which is not to be called History by those who spell that word with the majuscule, but which is entertaining gossip at least. It concerns a falling-out that took place between Marshal MacMahon and Cardinal Lavigerie, then Bishop of Algiers. The Marshal was Governor of Algiers, and, when the see became vacant, had influence enough to secure the appointment to it of M. Lavigerie, whom he had known at Nancy. Hardly had the prelate taken possession of his see when he attacked violently and publicly the administration of the Arab bureaus, which then existed "in all their beauty." He complained of the separation, the *parquage*, of the natives, whom he hoped, rather, to unite closely with the French colonists. MacMahon took the other side. After awhile a famine came, and the Bishop appealed to the Christians of Europe for aid. The Marshal found in this appeal an implied accusation of himself as being indifferent to the people's distress, and denounced Mgr. Lavigerie to the Emperor as one who was setting the colony by the ears through the ardor of his proselyting. The Emperor thereupon wrote to the Bishop: "You have a great task to perform in preaching good morals to the two hundred thousand Catholic colonists in Algeria. As to the Arabs, leave to the Governor-General the care of disciplining them and accustoming them to our rule." Lavigerie protested at once, in a public letter addressed to MacMahon, complaining of his lack of courtesy, and maintaining his own right to work for the overthrow of all barriers between the two peoples. Then he set off for Saint Cloud, where he had a long interview with the Emperor, the result of which was a promise on his part of a proper deference towards the Governor-General, and, on the other, a letter published in the *Officiel* recognizing his right to continue and extend his conciliatory labors. The Marshal was furious, and declared that he would oppose the return of Lavigerie to Algiers, on the ground that his coming back would provoke disturbances. M. Baroche then intervened, and offered the Bishop another position, but he refused it. He went back to Algiers, and took possession of his see again. MacMahon never forgave him this defeat, and long after, when he was President of the republic, did his best to prevent his elevation to the cardinalate. It is to M. Jules Grévy that Mgr. Lavigerie owes his red hat.

— During the more than thirty years which have elapsed since the publication of Alberi's edition of Galileo's works in sixteen volumes (Florence, 1842–'56), the researches of Italian and German scholars have brought to light a considerable number of minor treatises from the pen of the great Pisan physicist, which contribute in no small degree to complete our knowledge of what he was and what he achieved as a pioneer in natural science. In view of these discoveries, and stimulated by the completion of Frisch's critical edition of Kepler's *opera omnia* (Frankfort, 1858–'70), the Italian Government resolved to publish a "national edition" of the works of Galileo which should be worthy of his illustrious name. The Minister of Public Instruction laid the subject before the Italian Parliament, which voted the neces ary funds without hesitation, and the King did honor to himself by becoming patron of the enterprise. The editorship in chief was confided to Prof. Antonio Favaro of Padua, who, in 1888, issued a pamphlet entitled, 'Per la Edizione Nationale delle Opere di Galileo Galilei,' in which he stated the critical and diplomatic principles which should guide him in the execution of his task. Associated with him is a corps of three eminent savants as counsellors, and two younger scholars as assistants. The first volume of this work has recently appeared (Florence: Barbèra), and forms a stately quarto of 430 pages. In accordance with the chronological, and therefore logical, arrangement of the dissertations and discourses adopted by the editor, we have here to do exclusively with comparatively youthful productions of Galileo, the results of studies made before he was twenty-eight years of age, while he was yet under the instruction of Ostilio Ricci, or was lecturing on mathematics in the University of Pisa. Many of the earlier papers, now printed for the first time from original manuscripts in the National Library at Florence, are mutilated beyond hope of restoration, and all of them reveal to us a young scientist who, however superior to his compeers in mental vigor and activity and in the elegance and fluency of his Latinity, is still in bondage to scholastic methods and to the supreme authority of the Stagirite. The most extended as well as the most mature treatise in the present volume is the concluding one, entitled "De Motu," in which Galileo takes the first step in the direction that led him to the discovery of the laws of motion and to the dungeons of the Inquisition. Perhaps there is no subject on which mediæval philosophers uttered such arrant and voluminous nonsense as on that of motion, of which they really knew nothing. Galileo now began to perceive the utter fruitlessness of such speculations, and to recognize the importance of experiment and observation as means of detecting the secrets of nature. It was the radical and revolutionary change of view and of method of investigation, which we see clearly indicated in this treatise, that roused the anger of the Aristotelians, and compelled the young mathematician to resign his professorship in 1591 and quit his native city. It is evident from this meagre analysis of the contents of the volume before us that their chief interest consists in the light which they throw upon the intellectual growth and scientific evolution of Galileo—an interest, however, which, in his case, is very great and quite peculiar. The editorial work, it may be added, is exceedingly well done, and the excellence of the typographical execution reflects credit upon the Florentine publishing-house.

THIRTY YEARS OF EUROPEAN HISTORY—II.

A History of Modern Europe. By C. A. Fyffe, M.A., etc. Vol. III. (1848-1878). Henry Holt & Co.

To note down and describe the outward and, as it were, visible history of a given period is a comparatively easy task; it is one of those tasks, at any rate, which a lively writer and a well-informed man such as Mr. Fyffe gets through with more or less success. The really difficult achievement is to note and analyze the flow of opinion, sentiment, or conviction which makes up the internal, and, so to speak, mental history of a generation. It is a matter with which Mr. Fyffe hardly concerns himself. Yet one may confidently assert that the essentially important characteristic of European history towards the close of the nineteenth century will ultimately prove to be the extraordinary change not only in the beliefs, but even more in the feelings, of mankind which took place, or at least became noticeable, during the thirty years which followed upon the political disturbances of 1848. At the bottom of all that alteration in men's theological, moral, social, and political opinions which is now at last forcing itself upon the attention of the world, lies one fact which, obvious and undeniable as is its existence, has hitherto received far less notice than it deserves. This fact is the existence throughout all the more civilized States of Europe, and notably in England, of a freedom of speech, or freedom of discussion, such as has hardly ever existed in anything like the same extent at any time of which we have historical record.

No doubt this state of things, which is popularly, but inaccurately, described as freedom of thought, has been coming into existence for a century and a good deal more than a century. The noticeable thing, however, is, that, under influences which it would take an essay or a treatise to describe or analyze with any fulness, freedom of discussion has, during the last thirty or forty years, been developed with extraordinary rapidity. The checks, legal, moral, or conventional, which restrained liberty of speaking and writing, have all and each been weakened or removed. Not thirty years have elapsed since the appearance of Mill's essay on Liberty. The applause which greeted the work was symptomatic; but the point to be here remarked is, that the whole language and tone of the essay is already obsolete. Mill assumes, and more than once in effect states, that on matters of the greatest importance thoughtful men held opinions which they dared not express, and that the only reason why the coercive tyranny of public opinion was little felt was, that a generation morally dwarfed by restraint did not feel the strength of chains which they never tried to break. No author who saw things as they are, could in 1890 use language which, if exaggerated, was natural in 1860. The moral courage necessary for the expression of unpopular opinion may

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not have increased—an observer who was no cynic might maintain that moral cowardice was the special vice of the present time; but the less is attributed to courage the more must be attributed to freedom. It is plain that men can speak their minds, and do speak their minds, with perfect freedom about matters which, in 1860, could not, without risk of odium, be dealt with in the privacy of intimate conversation. Atheists, says a modern preacher, are nowadays not at all shy. Every word contained in 'Essays and Reviews' might now be published without attracting attention. Far stronger attacks on orthodoxy than anything contained in that celebrated volume appear every month in periodicals which lie on the tables of every well-to-do and respectable family in England. Socialism and communism are fashionable creeds. You may believe or disbelieve in any dogma or crotchet, and express your opinion, without incurring any blame which need trouble the equanimity of any man endowed with common sense or common courage.

All this, it will be said, is more true of England than of most European countries. This remark is true, but its only effect is to present another side of the very condition of opinion with which we are occupied. Freedom of discussion is practically better established in England than in any other Eur pean land; and England is, for the first time since the great Rebellion, the most revolutionary of modern States. Every institution is there open to discussion, and few are the English institutions or English convictions which will escape change. There is, of course, a general impression that freedom of discussion and consequent scepticism were far more prevalent in the France of 1790 than in the England of 1890. This notion is erroneous. The fierceness of the battle waged between contending forces during the great French Revolution would show, if other proof were wanting, how strong was still the power of conservatism. In England the combat between established beliefs of all kinds and their assailants is noiseless. The reason is that there is no widespread resistance to the freedom of criticism or of innovation. Liberty of discussion, and consequent disintegration of beliefs, whether social, political, or economical, is, we may be well assured, the note of the period of which Mr. Fyffe professes to be the historian. He never remarks this characteristic of the time—a characteristic, it must be admitted, which has become more noticeable since than before 1878—and he therefore hardly seems aware of the results which, even in the political world, have been produced by the subtle influence of criticism and debate.

Some of these results are so obvious and of such immediate importance as well to deserve attention. For example, two beliefs which in 1848 exerted untold influence, are losing their hold upon mankind. Enthusiasm for parliamentary institutions and enthusiasm for the doctrine of nationality were the mainsprings of the movements which in that year convulsed Europe. Even Socialists who, like Louis Blanc, were less inclined than most popular leaders of the day towards belief in constitutional or national ideals, still held that universal suffrage meant the triumph of Socialism, and were not consciously indifferent to the cause of national independence in Italy, Poland, or Germany; and the greater number of democrats firmly held that the establishment of representative government and of independent nations throughout Europe would be a panacea for all the evils affecting mankind. Parliaments now exist in every European State, but the belief in the blessings of government by parliament is yielding everywhere to denunciations of "parliamentarism." The new form of parliamentary legislature under which a representative assembly legislates but does not govern, expresses the prevalent, though it may be transitory, conviction that the true representative of a nation is a strong and independent national executive.

In such matters, opinion is governed in the main by palpable facts. Neither France, nor England, nor Italy is the country whose success attracts admiration. Germany is, whether rightly or not, looked upon as the leading State of Europe, and the creation of the German Empire, according to popular opinion, sprang from the triumph of Bismarck over the Parliament at Berlin. Freedom, according to the old democratic creed, was the source of national glory and power. But the national existence and the European supremacy of Germany have been achieved by the sword; and by a sword, be it remarked, which was sharpened in spite of the opposition of Liberals and Parliamentarians. Nationalism, it must be admitted, is still a force in the affairs of the world; but a calm observer may doubt whether the creed of nationality commands anything like the support which it commanded when preached by prophets like Mazzini amid the jeers of the respectable Liberalism of the day. There is no longer any nationality which fascinates the world with the charm of Italy when the treachery of France and the tyranny of Austria forbade the unity, and all but destroyed the freedom, of the Italian people. We all know now that an independent national existence is not of itself enough to renew or to create national genius, or even national prosperity. Spain is independent; but the Spanish nation contributes little or nothing to the progress of mankind. Italian unity is a great fact, and no one can restrain the hope that a country which in servitude produced men of genius, will, under the blessings of freedom, promote the reign of knowledge and enlightenment. But at the moment this is a matter of hope rather than experience. Mazzini, Cavour, Victor Emmanuel, and Garibaldi were in different ways men who arrested the gaze and the admiration of Europe. It were difficult to show that they have left successors; nor can it be said that Italy has, in the field of literature and science, displayed the talents which, thirty or forty years ago, were necessarily spent upon the solution of political problems. A free national government has also turned out in Italy an expensive form of government. The blessing is worth its price, but an Italian peasant would tell you that the price was a very heavy one.

It has, lastly, become clear enough that the doctrine of nationality is one of those doctrines which do not admit of thorough and consistent application. It may mean, and often does mean, the disintegration of great and prosperous communities. To restore Strassburg or Metz to France would be a satisfaction to French nationality, but a blow at the nationality of Germany. One of the best portions of Mr. Fyffe's last volume tells the tale of the reëstablishment of Hungarian independence; but this story makes perfectly clear that Hungarian independence is the triumph of one race among the several races represented in the Hungarian Diet. Add to all this that other ideals have for the last forty years been gradually coming into prominence which, if not actually opposed to the doctrine of nationality, are very different from it and may balance its influence.

In the place of these two beliefs have grown up two other convictions. The first is the doctrine which in 1848 was denounced by all respectable economists and politicians as Socialism. No doubt the Socialist or communistic schemes of the revolutionary era were crude ill-considered, and violent; but it was not their accidental defects, but their essential unsoundness, which offended the sober thinkers and the responsible statesmen of 1848. There are few men responsible for the conduct of national affairs who would to-day adopt any of the specific plans put forward by the French agitators who met at the Luxembourg. But the sentiment which lay at the bottom of these plans now pervades the whole of European society. Not many months have passed since a respectable and able peer, who represented the opinions of forty years ago, denounced in the House of Lords some proposal as Socialistic. He was reproved by the leader of the House and the head of the Conservative party, and told that men would not be frightened by words, and in effect that the denouncer of Socialism was behind his day. The German Emperor is no Liberal in the ordinary sense, but the German Emperor figures as the patron of State Socialism.

Look, again, at the benevolence of the time. It is very genuine and very active, but it is quite unlike the religious philanthropy of forty years back. It is in the main directed, even when under the hands of clergymen, not towards the direct saving of souls, but towards the deliverance of the people from physical want and misery. There was a great deal to be said—a good deal more than was actually said, either in the press or in Parliament—against the active part taken by a cardinal and a bishop to obtain good terms for the London dockers. But the fact that ecclesiastical dignitaries thought it right to come forward on behalf of workmen out on strike, is a sign of the times to which no one can shut his eyes. It exhibits the benevolence of the present generation, it exhibits also in a very marked manner that curious indifference to individual freedom, whether of masters or of men, which is a less pleasant feature of the time. This indifference to the kind of liberty of which Mill, though not always with perfect consistency, was the apostle, has a very close connection with the second of the two beliefs which have grown up since '48, and appear destined, for a time certainly, to spread and flourish.

This second conviction is a profound faith in men's collective action. It takes all sorts of shapes. In the mouth of most thinkers and politicians it is embodied in the repeated demand for the action of the State—that is to say, of the collective body of citizens. In every country of Europe, and notably in England, the duties of the Government are year by year increasing; and it should be noticed that demands for decentralization, as for the giving of additional powers to local bodies, are not demands that the State should cease to interfere, but that State interference should be carried out by local authorities. The same spirit, though in a different form and with different results, appears throughout the world in the sympathy felt with combinations of workmen intended to benefit the class of artisans or laborers, but also intended to confer this benefit by means of restraints placed on individual freedom. In one shape or another the idea constantly reappears that combined action, whether represented by the State or by powerful bodies within the State, must, for the benefit of the mass of mankind, coerce the selfishness, the egotism, or the eccentricity of individuals. It is no wonder that in Switzerland—a microcosm in which you may often

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see an anticipation of the ideas which will ultimately prevail in the great world without—thoughtful men point out the imminence of an alliance between the Ultramontanes and the Socialists. Such a combination is natural; for ardent Catholics and ardent Socialists alike hold that the claims of a society, whether it be the Church or the State, are of paramount authority when they come into conflict with the rights of individuals.

A writer who attempts to state or analyze the ideas prevalent at a given time, especially if that time be the period in which he is living, is liable to be the victim of one gross but natural misconception on the part of his readers. They assume that any one who states that an idea or conviction is prevalent, or likely to prevail, means to assert that the idea is sound and entitled to admiration. There is, therefore, a real danger that an attempt to explain what are the thoughts which have influenced civilized mankind, especially in the realm of politics, during the last thirty or forty years, may be treated as a defence or eulogy of modern conceptions. It may be well to remind our readers that criticism need not in itself be either censure or apology. The plain truth is, that every change in the convictions of mankind, at any rate in the sphere of political and social life, implies loss as well as gain. All that in this notice of Mr. Fyffe's book we wish to insist upon is, that there is a side of the history of the years between 1848 and 1878 which he has entirely neglected. Our aim has been to call attention to a prodigious change—we might well say a revolution—in European modes of thought and feeling. This revolution is assuredly not all for good. The idea of 1848, that freedom would of itself be the salvation of mankind, was a noble conception, and generations must elapse before any one can fairly decide whether the world has gained or lost most by the fact that palpable successes which were not attained by the Liberalism of 1848, were gained by the blood-and-iron policy which will always be connected with the name of Bismarck. It is difficult to believe that any one who, say in 1908, takes up Mr. Fyffe's work, will not be called upon to admit that the world has suffered much from that gradual apostasy from faith in individual liberty which grew up between 1848 and 1878.

VENETIAN CENSORSHIP.

The Venetian Printing Press: An Historical Study, based upon documents for the most part previously unpublished. By Horatio F. Brown. With twenty-two facsimiles. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 4to.

THE only fault we have to find with this sumptuous volume is its sumptuousness. If it were a work intended merely for bibliophiles and dilettanti; if its sphere were confined to enumerating the typographical peculiarities of the 'Decor Puellarum' and the artistic effects of the 'Hypnerotomachia Poliphili,' or to reviewing the successive triumphs of Spira and Jenson, of Valdarfer, Ratdolt, and Manuzio, its ponderous size, its generous type and margins, the thickness of the paper, the lavish facsimiles, and the limited edition would all be in place. Bibliophiles would prize it for its beauty as well as for the minuteness of information with which it condenses and supplements the older labors of Hain and Panzer, and the more recent ones of Fulin, Soranzo, and Castellani. But it is much more than a mere work of antiquarian bibliography. It is an historical study of first-rate importance, largely based on original researches, and as such it ought to be accessible to the student without the restrictions imposed by undue bulk and excessive cost.

We presume Mr. Brown to be the son of the late Rawdon Brown, whose long-continued labors in the Venetian archives contributed so much interesting material to the English Calendars of State Papers. He has, therefore, doubtless an hereditary acquaintance with those archives, which at the Frari and Museo Civico offer so large a series of records rendered accessible by careful arrangement and the liberal courtesy of the custodians. Of these opportunities he has made abundant use. More than half of his volume consists of an appendix of original documents which are of great interest. With such sources at his command, it is easy to understand how valuable a contribution the author has made, not only to the history of the printing art, but to that of literature and human thought. Thus the extracts from the day-book of a bookseller in 1484, preserved in the Marciana, by its lists of sales shows us what demand existed for books of every kind and their current prices, while the account of stock and entries of daily purchases afford us a curious insight into the mental activity of the period.

There is scarce any subject connected with the production and distribution of literature on which new light is not thrown, but it is to the most interesting and important of these that Mr. Brown devotes the greater part of his investigations—the regulation and censorship of the press. In the lands of the Roman obedience this has exercised an immense influence upon intellectual development, varying in proportion to the rigidity of its enforcement. In France the papal Index was treated with little respect, and in Catholic Germany with not much more. Spain was powerful enough to erect and manage for herself the machinery with which she crushed the intellect of her people. Venice would gladly have maintained the same independence, which she vainly asserted and endeavored to exercise with a wiser regard for the commercial as well as the intellectual interests of the community; but after the League of Cambrai the strength of the Republic was on the decline, and in the prolonged struggle with the Congregations of the Inquisition and of the Index it constantly lost ground. The questions involved were very intricate. No one pretended to champion freedom of thought or liberty of the press. The State sought to protect itself, as earnestly as the Church, against all ideas savoring of dangerous innovation, and both were perfectly willing to unite in stamping out heresy; but there was a wide field in which their respective pretensions were wholly incompatible, the State asserting its independent autocracy in temporal affairs, and the Church ever on the watch to extend its *potestatem in temporalia in ordine ad spiritualia.* For this it found the censorship an exceedingly convenient and effective instrument. All books which maintained the rights of the sovereign were promptly put on the Index. To this it was impossible for the sovereign to submit, and the quarrels which thence arose were bitter and prolonged.

The spirit in which the contest was carried on by both sides may be gathered from a single incident. The Venetian printers, Gianbattista Ciotto, Zoan Antonio, and Jacopo de' Franceschi, were printing the 'Disputatio de Censuris' of Suarez. In the fifth volume the Senate obliged them to omit certain passages, for the subject was one which bore directly on the power of the Church to coerce the State with its censures, and so orthodox a writer as the Jesuit Suarez could hardly fail to take a position obnoxious to the secular authorities. Hardly had the volume left the press when, in August, 1606, the Holy Congregation of the Index thundered forth a decree denouncing it as an audacious forgery. The unhappy printers were forbidden for the future to print books of any kind, under pain of excommunication, removable only by the Pope, and booksellers everywhere were prohibited from purchasing any such books from them, under penalty of excommunication *latæ sententiæ*, a fine of 200 ducats to the Apostolic Chamber, and such other arbitrary punishment as the Congregation might order.* Presumably, the unlucky printers, thus ground between the upper and the nether millstone, were ruined.

It was in vain that the Signiory endeavored to protect the flourishing printing industry against the crushing blows of Rome. It might defend a printer himself from penalties decreed against him, but an excommunication pronounced against a product of his press necessarily limited its market and rendered it unsalable. The Venetian population was insufficient to support the vast industry which looked to all Europe for a market, and when the Roman censorship was enforced, that industry received a fatal blow. Within a few months after the publication, in 1596, of the Index of Clement VIII. with its rigorous regulations, the number of Venetian presses fell off from one hundred and twenty-five to forty. In 1596 there were twenty-four copyrights taken out; in 1597 only seven. Printers left Venice in such numbers that in 1602 the Senate enacted a law to prevent their emigration without special license. The Signiory did what it could to prevent the decay of the printing art, but its position was fatally false. It was thoroughly Catholic at heart, there was no thought of a Reformation, and the cumbrous censorship which it established itself, coöperated with that of Rome in surrounding the business with so much formality and so many risks that it could not flourish. The story is an instructive one, and is told by Mr. Brown with abundant new detail and ample knowledge.

OUR NEXT NEIGHBOR.

The Constitution of Canada. By J. E. C. Munro. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan.

IT is only two years since the appearance of the work entitled 'Manual of the Constitutional History of Canada,' by Mr. J. G. Bourinot, clerk to the House of Commons of that country. Prior to the appearance of this book, two others by the same author had been published, one entitled 'Parliamentary Practice and Procedure in Canada,' the other 'Local Government in Canada.' Before these, came the work of Mr. Todd on Constitutional Government in the British Colonies, in which constitutional customs in Canada are discussed at length. With these treatises accessible, it could not be said that information concerning the Government of the Dominion of Canada was lacking. Nor should we omit to mention the work of Sir Edward Watkin, entitled 'Canada and the States,' containing recollections from 1851 to 1886. Although the main purpose of this book was to trace the development of the railway system of Canada, of which Sir Edward was one of the chief promoters, yet it contains a great deal of matter of political interest.

But the work of Mr. Munro is the most comprehensive manual on government in Canada that has as yet appeared. It contains in all twen-

*Mr. Brown (p. 161) gives an imperfect abstract of this decree from Reusch. It is to be found in the Index Alexandri VII., Romæ, 1664, Index Decret. n., vi.

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ty-one chapters. Giving, first, a general view of the scheme of government in that country, it treats of the constitutional history of the Provinces, of the sources of the law and customs of the Constitution, of the Provincial Legislatures, Assemblies, and Legislative Councils, of methods of legislation and of administration under the Dominion and Provincial Governments, of the judicial power, of the distribution of legislative power, of the Parliament of the Dominion, and of Imperial control.

The fact that Canada is part of the British Empire, and bears the name of a colonial dependency, tends to detract from the interest which its institutions would excite if it were nominally an independent State. In reality, Canada is independent to such an extent that, in all matters relating to its vigorous colony, the Imperial Government has been reduced to a state of practical subserviency. One by one the prerogatives of the Crown and of the Home Government have been yielded up, until their existence has become chiefly suppositional. Instead of contributing to the support of that Government, we find the Dominion levying customs duties on importations from England, not merely for revenue, but also for the "protection of home industries." Although the power of entering into treaties with foreign governments has not been conferred on the Dominion, yet the Parliament of Canada has "all powers necessary or proper for performing the obligations of Canada or of any province thereof as part of the British Empire towards foreign countries arising under treaties between the empire and such foreign countries." Recently the Canadian Parliament has passed a law to authorize extradition of criminals without reference to the treaties. The exercise by the Dominion of the power to execute treaties is very familiar to the people of the United States in its application to the Fisheries Treaty of 1818, for the enforcement of which according to its own views the Dominion has adopted statutory provisions, into the support of which the Imperial Government has doubtless been rather violently drawn. So it was with a hesitation by no means concealed that the British Parliament, against much opposition, made a grant of a subsidy to a line of steamers plying between Vancouver and Hong Kong.

The people of Canada enjoy and are proud of their practical independence, and would be quick to resent any aggressions by the Crown upon their privileges. On the other hand, the same spirit of independence has prevented the growth of a desire for political connection with any other government than that now nominally supreme. It is a common error in this country to associate any opposition in Canada to the exercise of Imperial prerogatives with a supposed predilection for political union with the United States. This error sometimes prevails so far as to lead to the attribution of annexation sentiments to the whole Liberal party in Canada, that being *par excellence* the party of opposition to Imperial encroachments. It is true that whatever annexation sentiment there may be is chiefly, if not wholly, found within that party. But it is gravely erroneous to suppose that it represents, either avowedly or secretly, a movement towards annexation.

In the great reorganization of government in Canada which took place in the formation of the Dominion and the passage by the Imperial Parliament of the British North America Act in 1867, many suggestions were taken from the Constitution of the United States and the British Constitution, and adapted to the conditions then existing under the systems of government in the various British North American colonies. It is true that specified powers only were given to the Provinces, the balance of legislative power being vested either in the Dominion or in the Imperial Parliament. But if we turn to the exclusive powers of legislation committed to the Provincial legislatures, we find that they have a very wide scope. They extend, generally, to the amendment of the Provincial constitutions; to the laying of direct taxes and the borrowing of money for Provincial purposes; to the establishment and tenure of Provincial offices; to the management of prisons, charities, schools, and municipal institutions; to the creation and regulation of property and civil rights, and the administration of justice in the Provinces; and, generally, to all matters of a merely local or private nature. As in the United States, we often find laws of the Dominion and laws of the Provinces operating upon the same subject. Thus there exists a general act of the Dominion, known as the Scott Act, in regard to the sale of intoxicating liquors. At the same time, under the power to license saloons, we find various stringent local regulations on the subject.

To the exercise by the Provinces of their powers in relation to education we find certain limitations. Thus, a Provincial law is not permitted prejudicially to affect any right or privilege with respect to denominational schools which any class of persons may have had at the time of the Union. From any act or decision of any Provincial authority touching such schools an appeal lies to the Governor-General in Council, and in certain events the Dominion Parliament may make remedial laws. These provisions are suggestive of the social complications and antagonisms which were so prominently exhibited not long since in the commotion over the Jesuits' Estates Act.

In constituting the Legislature of the Dominion, the British Parliament was taken as the model, but some important departures from it were made. There is a popular branch, called the House of Commons, but the upper house, as in the United States, is called the Senate, and the hereditary principle found in the House of Lords has been discarded. The Canadian Senate contains 80 members, of whom Ontario has 24, Quebec 24, Nova Scotia 10, New Brunswick 10, Prince Edward's Island 4, British Columbia 3, Manitoba 3, the Northwest Territories 2. Senators are appointed by the Governor-General for life. They must be thirty years of age, and must hold real and personal property of the value of $4,000 over and above their debts and liabilities. This property qualification they must continue to possess, and each Senator is required, under a resolution of that body adopted in 1880, to take, within twenty days from the opening of the first session of each Parliament, an oath containing a declaration that he holds property of the value required.

The House of Commons is composed of 215 members, apportioned among the various Provinces, approximately to population. No property qualification is required to hold a seat in the Commons. The elective franchise is regulated by a Dominion act passed in 1885. Prior to that time the electors of the House of Commons were such persons in each Province as were qualified to vote for members of the Provincial Assembly. Although, under the British North America Act of 1867, the Parliament of the Dominion had the power to provide for a uniform franchise, it was not until 1885 that Provincial opposition sufficiently abated to permit the power to be exercised. As in England, the practice of introducing money bills on the advice of a responsible Minister was adopted, and in matters of practice the precedents of the British House are generally followed.

In 1875 there was established a Supreme Court of the Dominion, consisting of a Chief Justice and five puisne judges. This Court, as Mr. Munro observes, is not supreme in the American sense, since an appeal may lie to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England. Among other powers, the Supreme Court of Canada has jurisdiction in controversies between the Dominion and a Province, or between Provinces, or to determine the validity of Provincial laws, where the Legislature of any Province shall have passed an act agreeing to such jurisdiction. British Columbia, Ontario, and Nova Scotia have each passed such an act.

Our Dictionaries, and Other English-Language Topics. By R. O. Williams. Henry Holt & Co. 1890.

THIS little book is mainly taken up with notes upon the use of a few words. The hasty dictum of Dr. E. A. Freeman, that the non-ecclesiastical use of *metropolis* is "slang," is easily and amply refuted. Mr. Williams well says that "for more than two hundred years the secular meaning has been the prominent one," and the only reason for not extending the statement is that Elizabethan secular writers were not fond of the Greek forms. They often alluded to London as the "mother towne" of England.

The account of "our dictionaries" could not well be flimsier; but a discriminating guide to books of reference, useful as it would be, can hardly be looked for from American publishers. "The examples collected by Johnson," says Mr. Williams, "have formed the main stock of the citations used by subsequent dictionary-makers." This, of course, does not apply to Richardson, to say nothing of Murray. The 'Century Dictionary' has as many quotations as Johnson and Richardson together. It is no wonder that the fraction of the population which has not been engaged in the production of this world of words, has included every person capable of supervising the quotations in a really masterly way; for there was no possibility of competing with Murray and his 1,300 readers. Still, most of the 'Century' citations are judicious and unexceptionable; and if the treatment of them is less severely scientific, it is more agreeable than that of the Philological Society's vast collection.

In the first ten pages of part xvi. of the 'Century' (the latest to hand), we count 260 quotations, fewer than in the earlier parts of the work, which seems to be overrunning its limits. Quotations under *pilfer* from Dryden and Bacon, under *pilgrim* from Grew's 'Anatomy of Plants,' and under *pilotage* from Raleigh, have been taken from Johnson, apparently without verification, and quotations under *pillery* from Daniel and under *pimping* from Crabbe have been similarly drawn from the 'Imperial.' An abridged quotation and wrong definition, under *pinax*, come from Webster. We may state here that a few references appear to be either erroneous, misleading, or insufficient. Under *pile*, in the electrical sense, it might have been well to quote from Volta's own description, which was originally published in English.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbé, C. S. Our Great Actors: Six Water-Color Portraits. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $5.
Ackerman, W. K. Historical Sketch of the Illinois Central Railroad. Chicago: Fergus Printing Co. 75 cents.
Allen, W. B. The Lion City of Africa. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $2.25.
Baker, Sir S. W. Wild Beasts and Their Ways. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.

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Ballou, W. H. The Upper Ten. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Blake, Mary E. A Summer Holiday in Europe. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Blake, Mary E. Verses along the Way. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Bowen, H. W. In Divers Tones. Boston: J. G. Cupples Co. $1.25.
Bower, A. M., and Tolrá E. The First Spanish Book. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
Brontë, Charlotte. Jane Eyre. 2 vols. Illustrated. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $5.
Browne, W. H. George Calvert and Cecilius Calvert, Barons Baltimore of Baltimore. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents.
Chatterbox. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Clark, Susie C. The Round Trip from the Hub to the Golden Gate. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Davidson, J. T. A Good Start. A. C. Armstrong & Son $1.25.
Drake, S. A. The Pine-Tree Coast. Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Eastward; or, A Buddhist Lover. Boston: J. G. Cupples Co. $1.50.
Eliot, George. Romola. 2 vo's. Illustrated. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $6.
Eliot, George. Romola. 2 vo's. Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Everett, C. C. The Science of Thought. New ed. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co. $1.50.
Finck, H. T. The Pacific Coast Scenic Tour. Illustrated. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Flammarion, C. Urania. Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Green, Anna Katharine. A Matter of Millions. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.50.
Gribayédoff, V. The French Invasion of Ireland in '98. New York: Charles P. Somerby.
Hallsworth, T. E. Onward Reciter. London: S. W. Partridge & Co.
Hennequin, A. The Art of Playwriting. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Henty, G. A. A Chapter of Adventures. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Henty, G. A. By England's Aid; or, The Freeing of the Netherlands. Scribner & Welford. $1.50.
Henty, G. A. Maori and Settler. Scribner & Welford. $1.50.
Henty, G. A. By Right of Conquest; or, With Cortez in Mexico. Scribner & Welford. $1.50.
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